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OUR TROPICAL POSSESSIONS

IN

MALAYAN INDIA.

SINGAPORE AT SUNRISE FROM THE HILLS WESTWARD

OUR TROPICAL POSSESSIONS

IN

MALAYAN INDIA:

BEING A DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNT OF SINGAPORE, PENANG, PROVINCE WELLESLEY, AND MALACCA; THEIR PEOPLES, PRODUCTS, COMMERCE, AND GOVERNMENT.

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BY

JOHN CAMERON, Esq., F.R.G.S.

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS.

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CONTENTS.

PAGE

PREFACE xi

CHAPTER I.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENT: HISTORY, ANCIENT AND MODERN.

Introduction—The three Stations, Singapore, Penang, and Malacca—Geographical Positions—Singapore—Its very early History—Colonized by the Malays in 1160—Lost through Treachery to the Javanese—Story of its Loss—Re-occupation by the Malays in 1512—Settlement by the British—Sir Stamford Raffles—Bencoolen—Bickerings with the Dutch—Colonel Farquhar first Resident—Town laid out—Mr. Crawfurd—Incorporation with Penang and Malacca—Mr. Fullerton—His unpopularity—Quarrel with Sir John Claridge—Arrival of Lord William Bentinck—Mr. Ibbetson Governor—Mr. Murchison—Mr. Bonham—First China Expedition—Colonel Butterworth—First Chinese Riot—Mr. Blundell—Lord Elgin's famous Decision—Second Chinese Riot—Colonel Cavanagh now Governor 1

CHAPTER II.

SCENERY: SINGAPORE FROM SEAWARD.

Surpasses in Loveliness that of Ceylon and Java—Green Islets—The Old Strait—Lake Scenery—Ancient Piracy—Native Craft—Wood Rafts—Singapore Harbour—Eastern Approach—Approach from Westward—Mount Faber—P. and O. Company—Projected new Dock—H.M.'s Dockyards—Present Dock—Shipping in the Roadstead—Men-of-War—Chinese Junks—Coolie Horrors—Malay Prahus—Small Boats—Coral—The Town Frontage—Fort Fullerton—Public Buildings—Old Residences—St. Andrew's Church—Background—Fort Canning 27

CHAPTER III.

SINGAPORE: THE TOWN.

Ancient Tradition—Crowded Streets—Commercial Square—Verandahs—Vigour of Nature—The River—Crowd of Boats—Busy Wharves—Proposed Pier—Native Part of the Town—Native Shops—Chinese Trades—Opium Shops—Manner of Smoking—Chinese Barbers—Itinerant Vendors—Street Scribes—Dangerous Driving—River Bridges—Eastern Division of the Town—St. Andrew's Cathedral—Court House—Town Hall—Night View 49

CHAPTER IV.

INLAND SCENERY: JUNGLE TIGERS.

Residences—Indian Bungalows—Roads—Dhobies—Fireflies—Nutmeg Plantations—Gambier Plantations—The Jungle—Parasites—Rattans—Pitcher Plants—Jungle Roads—Selita Bungalows—Monkeys—Deer—Hogs—Tigers—Yearly Victims—Concealment by the Chinese Planters—Small Number of Tigers—Few killed—First Tigers seen in Singapore—Swim across from Mainland—How they attack Man—Instant Death—An Escape—Tigers cowardly—Malay Adventure—Singular Attack in Province Wellesley—How they mangle their Victims—Means adopted for their Extermination—Their Habits—Tiger Pits—Late Incident at a Pit—The Reduction of Tigers a Consideration for future Government 73

CHAPTER V.

POPULATION: ABORIGINES—MALAYS—CHINESE.

Population Tables—Aboriginal Tribes—Their Country—Their own Traditions—Driven to the Interior by the Invasion of the Malays—Customs—Feasts and Marriages—The Chase—Their Dwellings—Features—Disposition—Superstitions—Contact with the Malays.—THE MALAYS: their Origin—Number in British Settlements—Mahomedans—Hamlets—Domestic Relationship—Appearance—Comeliness of the Women—Dress—Want of Industry—Pursuits—The Tumongong and Sultan.—THE CHINESE: their Industry—Secret Societies—Obstruction to Justice—Opium Smoking—Gambling—NATIVES OF INDIA: Klings—Bengalese—Other Asiatics—Half Castes—Progress of the Population, past and future 108

CHAPTER VI.

CULTIVATION: CLIMATE—FRUIT—PRODUCTS.

Temperature — Rain—Freedom from Disease—Fruits: the Mangosteen; the Durian — No fixed Seasons—Products—Gutta Percha: Manner of Collection—Gambier: Method of Preparation—Pepper: Preparation of White and Black—The Nutmeg: early Plantations at Bencoolen and Penang — Begun at Singapore —Planting Mania—Appearance of Disease or Blight — Its rapid Progress — Death of all the Plantations — Cultivation Extinct—Cocoanuts 150

CHAPTER VII.

COMMERCE: SINGAPORE—PENANG—MALACCA.

Nature of the Trade of Singapore—Its rapid Progress—Comparative Progress of the three Stations—Imports at Singapore from different Countries—Their Character — Singapore Exports—Of what they consist—Number and Nationalities of Vessels arrived during the Year at the Port of Singapore — Future Commercial Policy—Imports at Penang—Sumatra Produce—Exports from Penang—They exceed the Imports — Number and Nationality of Ships arrived at Penang during the Year —Imports and Exports of Malacca—Tin, the chief Export—Royalty reserved by Government — Concluding Remarks on the Commerce of the Straits of Malacca 174

CHAPTER VIII.

GOVERNMENT: REVENUE—EXPENDITURE—MILITARY DEFENCE.

Past Government — Present Administration — Supreme Court — Sources of Revenue — Farming System — *Its Advantages* — Government Farms—Opium Farm—Its *Morality*—*Toddy and* Baang, Spirit, and Pawnbrokers' Farms — *Expedience of a* Gambling Farm—Its Value—*Evils of the present Attempt to* restrict the Vice—Land Revenue—Stamp Tax—Municipal Revenue—General Expenditure—Public Works—Government Salaries—Military Expenditure and Strength — Fortifications of Singapore—Their Faults—Advantages of a Sea Defence—Singapore a Naval and Military Depôt—Evils of a Local Corps or Local Marine 203

CHAPTER IX.

EXCITEMENTS: AMOKS—GANG ROBBERIES—RIOTS—THE "ALABAMA."

Security of English Residents—Amok running—First instance in Singapore—Remarkable Case—Cause or Motive—Severe Measures to repress them—Gang Robberies—Two serious Cases—How they were suppressed—First Chinese Riot in 1854—Its Origin—Its Incidents—The Military and Special Constables—Second Chinese Riot in 1857—Its Cause—Its Incidents—The Volunteers—Its Pacification—The *Alabama*—Her Arrival—Native Excitement—Her Appearance—Her Officers and Crew—Captain Semmes—Her Departure—She burns the *Martaban*, *Sonora*, and *Highlander*, in the Straits—The Effect of her Appearance in the East on American Shipping 256

CHAPTER X.

SOCIETY: ITS DIVISIONS—STYLE OF LIFE.

No Field for European Labours—Case in Illustration—None for Adventurers—Social Distinctions—Society in its restrictive Signification—Its Conservativeness—Its expensive Hospitality—Its Composition—Prejudice against Colour—Style of Living—General Luxury—A Day's Life—Morning Walks—Cool Air and Beauty of Scenery—Breakfast—Drive to Town—Business—Tiffin—Fives Court—The Band—Drive Home—Dinner—Its Substantial Nature—After Dinner Amusements 280

CHAPTER XI.

PENANG: SETTLEMENT—PROGRESS—SCENERY.

Introduction—Object of the Settlement—Founded by Mr. Light in 1786—Its formal Inauguration—Early Contentions between the Officials and Merchants—Death of Mr. Light—Proposed Abandonment—Major McDonald—Continued Contentions—Contumacy of the Merchants—Death of Major McDonald—Sir George Leith succeeds—Extension of Establishment—Annexation of Province Wellesley—Penang becomes a Presidency in 1805—First Recorder arrives—Rapid Succession of Governors—Eccentricities of the Recorder—Deficiency of the Revenue—Lord Bentinck's Arrival—Scenery—Approach—Town and Shipping—The "Valley"—The High Lands—The Waterfall—View from Government Hill—Climate—Society 304

CHAPTER XII.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY—TOPOGRAPHY—AGRICULTURE.

Fertility of the Soil—Climate—Sea Frontage—Rivers—Early Piratical Nests—Roads—Culture—Rice—Malay and Siamese Farmers—Intermixture of the Races—Malayan Tradition of the Origin of Paddy—Siamese Account—Harvest Ceremonies and Amusements—Sugar Culture—Advantages of the Province—Early Chinese Cultivation—Their Method of Milling—European Planters—Varieties of Sugar-canes—Manner of Planting—Principal European Estates—Future Prospect of Sugar Culture—Other Products—Wild Animals—Tigers—Elephants—Rhinoceros—Bison, &c. 327

CHAPTER XIII.

MALACCA: ITS ANTIQUITY—TRACES OF ITS EARLIER DAYS.

How and when it came into European Possession—Its former Greatness—Traces of its earlier Days—The Stadt-house—St. Paul's Cathedral—Old Tombs and their Epitaphs—The Ancient Fort—Its Destruction by the English—Underground Passages and their Traditions—Curious Discoveries—Evidences of extensive Gold Mining—Painful Incident—The Modern Church—Practical Spirit of the East India Company 348

CHAPTER XIV.

MALACCA: INHABITANTS—AGRICULTURE—MINING.

Native Division of the Town—The Inhabitants—A Convict's Story—Internal Resources of the Territory—Fruit Gardens—Paddy Cultivation—Tapioca—Its Growth and Manufacture—"Ayer Panas" Bungalow—The Hot Springs—The Tin Mines at Kassang—The Roman Catholic Mission to the Aborigines—Father Borie—The Jacoons—Tiger Story—Superstition of the Jacoons—Deserted Nutmeg Plantation 372

APPENDICES 395

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Singapore at Sunrise, from the Hills Westward ..... *to face Title*
2. View at the Entrance to New Harbour, Singapore ,, *page* 33
3. The River and Town of Singapore, from Fort Canning ,, ,, 55
4. Malay Fishing Hamlet, near Singapore ,, ,, 129
5. The *Alabama* at Anchor in New Harbour, Singapore ,, ,, 278
6. View of a Country Road in Penang ,, ,, 321
7. View in Province Wellesley—The Paddy Fields under Water ,, ,, 331

PREFACE.

THE following pages have been written under the belief that the possessions of which they treat are about to come under the direct control of the Imperial Government, and with a view to afford the people of England some glimpse of the great beauty, some conception of the valuable commerce, and some grounds upon which to estimate the importance, in a political point of view, of the tropical country to which they are about to be drawn in the ties of a nearer relationship. And I do not think I have claimed for my subject more attention than it deserves. In point of physical beauty it can have few compeers; its chief port ranks third in the commerce of India; and its geographical position gives it a political importance which must be measured by the value to Great Britain of ascendancy throughout the rapidly developing countries of the Far East.

While the greater part of my book is descriptive, I have in some chapters ventured to offer an opinion on one or two of the chief questions of Government which are likely to be raised hereafter; and even if my conclusions should be faulty, the material from which they are drawn will be found valuable, and afford, perhaps, the basis of as secure a policy—for whether in describing the possessions themselves, their commerce or their government, I have made no statement on hazard merely—much may have been left untold, but what does appear has been the subject of careful inquiry. In conclusion, it may be well to claim the reader's indulgence, in so far that as I now part with the manuscript at a very great distance from the place of publication, I shall not be allowed the advantage of revising or reconsidering what I have written. I trust, however, that the constancy with which I have adhered to facts throughout will confine my short-comings rather to errors of taste and judgment, than permit them to include those in any way likely to mislead or misinform.

JOHN CAMERON.

SINGAPORE, 21*st July*, 1864.

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CHAPTER I.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENT: HISTORY, ANCIENT AND MODERN.

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THE tropical colony of the Straits Settlement, which is probably about to pass from under the government of India to be added to the list of direct dependencies of the Crown, is one which in many ways will merit the solicitude of the Imperial Government. Its

administration is a high and important trust, which if boldly, and yet wisely conducted, will go further to preserve the predominance and permanence of British interests—commercial and political—in the Eastern Archipelago, and the adjacent native continental States —if not, indeed, in China itself—than any other means which the Imperial Government can employ. Founded under the rule of the old East India Company, and fostered from its infancy by a policy which, if faulty in many other respects, was at least well suited to protect and encourage a settlement ere it attained inherent strength enough to stand by itself, the Straits Settlement has grown to an importance incompatible with such tutelage. It remains to be seen how the progress of its maturer years will be advanced or retarded by the wise or unwise government of English statesmen.

Hitherto but little has been given to the world concerning it, and to the great bulk of untravelled Englishmen it is known only as a distant Indian station, where manufactures are sold and produce bought under the sweltering heat of an equatorial sun. Indeed, an existence there is viewed as an exile of the worst description, to be compensated only by the wealth which it is reputed to bring. But those who have endured that exile can tell a far different tale of the condition of life in the tropical garden; and those at all acquainted with the high roads of Eastern trade, have but to view the position of the island of Singapore on the chart, to become sensible of its importance to such a nation as Great Britain; an importance which

must keep pace with the growth of European intercourse with the populous nations of the East.

Much of the ignorance which prevails in the mother country as to the character and resources of these outlying settlements is to be attributed to the nature of their past government, which separated them as completely from English control, and, of course, from English public interest, as if they had been the possessions of a foreign power. The East India Company, that guided their destinies until six years ago, was never communicative. Nor was the change which took place in 1858, when the Company yielded up its authority to the Crown, likely to bring the affairs of the Straits into any greater notice in England. The settlement continued to be ruled through the council at Calcutta, who, from the affairs of a great empire, could but seldom spare much attention to the necessities of a distant province possessing nothing in common with, and nothing that could much contribute to, the welfare of the mother continent. But, as will be presently seen, from a combination of fortuitous circumstances, the neglect has not been fatal. Singapore, founded on the liberal and enlightened principles understood at the time by so few, but which formed the loadstone of Sir Stamford Raffles' policy, has withstood the evil consequences of neglect, and, aided by the enterprise of its merchants, and by the rare advantages which its geographical position gives it, has gradually, but always progressively, grown into commercial importance, which will be best understood when it is stated that its yearly imports exceed six

millions and a half sterling, and its exports over five millions and a half. Penang and Malacca, sharing soon after their incorporation the liberal policy inaugurated at Singapore, have prospered with it, though not to the same degree. The gross imports of the three settlements may be represented in round numbers by eight millions and a half, and the exports by eight millions and a quarter. These facts have at last forced their way, if not into the notice of the world at large, at least into that of the British Government, the great arbiter of the fate of aspiring dependencies, and it has, I believe, been concluded that a possession of such a gigantic commerce should no longer remain "the dependency of a dependency;" nor has it been thought wise, that a place so valuable, in a strategic point of view, to a nation aspiring to paramount influence in the East, should remain to be administered under the circuitous routine of the Bengal Government.

The tropical colony, then, comprises the island of Penang, (or Prince of Wales' Island, including Province Wellesley,) the town and territory of Malacca, and the island of Singapore. The East India Company in 1786 came into possession of Penang by treaty with the Rajah of Quedah, a native state on the west coast of the peninsula; and fourteen years later the slip of land opposite Penang, now known as Province Wellesley, was ceded to the Company by the same prince.

Malacca was conquered by the Portuguese under Albuquerque more than 350 years ago, and about 100

years afterwards fell by conquest into the hands of the Dutch, who retained it until 1795, when we took it from them. It remained in our possession until four years after the conclusion of the treaty of Vienna, and in 1818, was re-delivered by us to the Dutch in conformity with the terms of that treaty; but seven years afterwards it came finally into our possession in terms of the celebrated treaty with Holland of 1824. As for Singapore, it has never changed European owners. In 1819, Sir Stamford Raffles, then Governor of Fort Marlborough, or Bencoolen, in Sumatra, who had been long impressed with the importance of the position, came over and took formal possession of the then nearly uninhabited island, on terms which will be treated of hereafter.

The three settlements lie along the northern boundary of the Straits of Malacca. Penang is an island situated at its north-western entrance, or in about latitude 5° 24′ north, and longitude 100° 21′ east, and is about 13½ miles long, having an extreme breadth of 10 miles, containing an area of very nearly 70,000 acres. Province Wellesley is on the mainland of the peninsula, immediately opposite Penang, the water dividing them being about 3 miles broad at the narrowest point; it runs north and south 25 miles, varying in breadth from 4 to 11 miles, and containing an area of 15,000 acres. Malacca is a much larger tract of territory, distant from Province Wellesley some 260 miles along the coast of the Malayan Peninsula, in a south-easterly direction, the intervening territory belonging to the native states of Perak and Salangore,

both under the English protection; it has a frontage to the straits of 43 miles, its extent inland varying from 10 to 28 miles. The town stands in latitude 2° 16′ north. About 100 miles south-east from Malacca, at the eastern entrance of the straits, the island of Singapore juts out from the native state of Johore, and forms the heel of the peninsula. It is 25 miles long by 14 broad, and contains an area of 206 square miles. The position of the town is in latitude 1° 17′ north, longitude 103° 51′ east.

Of the island of Singapore—the youngest but most important of the three incorporated settlements—I mean first to treat separately, leaving my notice of Penang and Malacca to a later part of this volume.

The very early history of Singapore can possess but little interest to English readers as compared with its present condition, and I shall consequently be as brief on this head as possible. As will be seen, when I come to treat of the native races of the settlement, the aborigines of the peninsula and adjacent islands were composed of wandering and very thinly scattered tribes, who never built permanent villages. As early as the year A.D. 1160, the pioneers of the Malays came over from Sumatra, and driving out the few scattered tribes of the aborigines, planted a considerable colony on the island, which they named Singhapura. The kings of Java, anxious to possess so prosperous a settlement, made repeated attacks upon it, but were invariably driven back, until the year 1252, when treachery at last led to the defeat and

expulsion of the sturdy settlers. It appears that their prince or chief, captivated by the exceeding comeliness of the daughter of his bandahara or viceroy, took her to wife, much to the disgust of his other mistresses, who, not long after her marriage, accused her of infidelity, and so worked upon the jealousies of the prince that he ordered her impalement. The bandahara, assured of his child's innocence, earnestly entreated that, if his daughter must suffer death, it might not be so shameful a one. His request, however, was disregarded, and so was formed the first traitor in the camp of the islanders. The bandahara secretly invited the Javanese to the conquest of the place; they came, and the gates of the citadel admitted them by night; an obstinate struggle succeeded, but the Javanese were victorious, driving the Singaporeans from the island to seek a new colony on the mainland of the peninsula. This they did at Malacca, and in the end became the founders of the Johore Empire.

Singapore appears not to have prospered in the hands of its Javanese conquerors. It never rose to any pre-eminence under them, nor was it ever sufficiently powerful to take part in the many struggles that afterwards ensued between the Portuguese and the surrounding native principalities. Indeed, the most probable conjecture seems to be, that a century or so after its acquisition it had been abandoned, at least as a stronghold, by the Javanese, and left to a few peaceable fishermen and tillers of the soil, who neither attracted the cupidity nor provoked the jealousy of

other states, nor possessed any sentiments of ambition in themselves. In this condition the island appears to have remained until the middle of the sixteenth century, when the descendants of its original founders, who had grown in power and opulence, were expelled from Malacca by the Portuguese under Albuquerque.

From the time that the Malay pioneers had been driven by the Javanese from Singapore to plant their new settlement at Malacca, they had prospered in no ordinary degree; and had not only brought under their dominion a considerable portion of the south-western coasts of the peninsula, but had extended their sovereignty over many of the islands southward of the Straits of Singapore. When, therefore, after many fruitless attempts to overcome their Christian foes, they were expelled from the centre of their government at Malacca, they moved further south, gathered together the remnants of their possessions, and founded the kingdom of Johore, which embraced the southernmost extremity of the peninsula, from Point Romania on the east to the Cassang river on the west, and also included Singapore and many of the islands to the south of the Straits, such as the Carimons, Bintang—of which Rhio is the capital, &c. I do not propose here to follow the chequered fortunes of the kingdom of Johore, but, from what has been stated, the singular circumstance can be noted, that the island of Singapore, though for whole centuries afterwards it remained an impenetrable jungle with but a few fishing villages on its shores, was nevertheless the original settlement of the adventurous and, in

many respects, noble race, that, like English colonists in more modern instances, have laid the foundation of a great empire on but a very small beginning.

From the time of the foundation of the Johore empire in 1512, till more than three hundred years afterwards when Sir Stamford Raffles founded a British settlement on it, Singapore was esteemed but of very little importance. The great empire itself had been much shaken by continued encounters with native as well as European foes; and, in some cases, internal dissension and disturbances had still further weakened its unity. The Dutch had just taken possession of Rhio for 4,000 guilders a month, and were busy with their intrigues to obtain supremacy over the entire kingdom of Johore. Sir Stamford Raffles, however, was not to be outwitted by native vacillation or Dutch cunning, and he was far more wise in his selection of the future English station than were the Dutch, when they chose Rhio. He must have clearly seen that, on the high road of China commerce, Singapore could not fail under a liberal and enlightened policy, and in the possession of such a nation as Great Britain, to grow up to an importance that would wither the efforts of any rival power in its vicinity. But he had no small difficulty to encounter. He was desirous to secure not a virtual possession only, but a legal one—legal in the eyes of the people themselves, as well as of European nations. This was not a very easy task at the time. In 1818 Major Farquhar, then resident of Malacca, had made a treaty with Sultan Abdul Rahman Shah, providing for mutual liberty of

navigation and commerce in the ports and dominions of Johore, and securing a right to build a factory on the island of Singapore. A few months afterwards, however, the Dutch, when Malacca was delivered up to them in terms of the treaty of Vienna, sent an overpowering force to Rhio, where Abdul Rahman Shah, with whom our treaty was made, resided; they declared this chief to be their vassal, and treated with contempt all the negotiations he had made with us; extorting a treaty from him for themselves, which altogether excluded British trade from his ports and possessions. But Sir Stamford Raffles was not deterred from the pursuit of his original intention towards Singapore, and in 1819 he proceeded there with Major Farquhar, and hoisted the British flag, placing the latter gentleman in charge of the new settlement. It appears that soon after landing, Sir Stamford was visited by the Tumongong or viceroy of Johore; this powerful chief was far from friendly to the progress of the Dutch in these parts, and readily lent himself to carry out the wishes of Sir Stamford Raffles to obtain for the British a legal and indefeasible title to the new settlement. He stated that the legitimate sovereign of Johore was Hassan Shah, the elder son of the late sultan, and not Abdul Rahman Shah, with whom our first treaty had been made, and whom the Dutch had acknowledged as the legitimate successor simply because he was more conceding in his disposition. Assured of this fact, Sir Stamford Raffles secretly despatched a packet to Rhio where Hassan Shah was living in obscurity, and had him brought over

to Singapore in the night-time. As soon as he landed, Sir Stamford Raffles called together the Tumongong of Johore and Bandahara of Pahang, the two hereditary elective officers of the empire, and had him proclaimed Sultan. A treaty was now drawn up, to the effect that British jurisdiction should extend over a limited part of the island, from Tanjong (or Cape) Mallang on the west, to Tanjong Katong on the east, and as far inland as the range of cannon shot. It was not until five years afterwards that final arrangements for the entire cession of the island to the British were made; when a treaty was concluded on the 2nd of August, 1824, between Mr. Crawfurd, on the part of the Company, with their Highnesses the Sultan and Tumongong of Johore, whereby "the island of Singapore, together with the adjacent seas, straits, and islets, to the extent of ten geographical miles from the coast of Singapore, were given up in full sovereignty and property to the East India Company, their heirs and successors, for ever;" the Company agreeing to pay the Sultan the sum of 33,200 Spanish dollars, together with a yearly stipend during his life of 15,600 Spanish dollars; and to the Tumongong the sum of 26,000 dollars, together with a yearly stipend of 8,400 dollars. By this treaty, too, the Sultan and Tumongong bound themselves to enter into no alliance, and make no treaties with any foreign power or potentate, without first obtaining the consent of the British thereto.

As will be gathered from the sequel, owing to a want of energy and a want of strength of character in

the family of the Sultan, it has gradually lost both power and fortune; while, on the other hand, the Tumongong's family, being distinguished by great ability and determination, had steadily acquired wealth and influence, until seven years ago, when, by a treaty between the Sultan and Tumongong, recognized by the British authorities at the time, the entire sovereignty of Johore was conceded to the family of the latter. The transaction had certainly not the approval of a very large majority of the European community at the time; and it was said that the local government authorities pushed matters on somewhat indiscreetly. To the present day, the question of the rights of the Sultan as against those of the Tumongong is not unfrequently the subject of argument in the newspapers. But it seems clear that the Tumongong's authority is now far too firmly established to be overturned; and it would even appear that from the first the Tumongong had more voice in the government than the Sultan, especially in all that regarded Singapore, the soil of which appears to have been his property.

Singapore was not associated with Penang till 1826, but ranked for the first four years after its settlement as one of the dependencies of Fort Marlborough (Bencoolen), of which Sir Stamford Raffles was Governor, and after Sir Stamford left for Europe, was constituted an independent residency under the Bengal Government. Bencoolen—which had been in the Company's possession since 1685—was of but minor importance, possessing almost no attractions in a commercial point of view. It was valuable chiefly for its

pepper produce, which was a monopoly in the hands of the Company; and it was to the servants of the Company there that the celebrated message about white pepper came out from the directors. It appears that at the time white pepper found a much more ready sale in the home market than black, and the directors, ever watchful of their interests, wrote out to Bencoolen in their usual magniloquent style, directing their servants to "pay more regard in future to the planting and cultivation of white pepper, and not to increase the number of black pepper plants." But both black and white pepper are from exactly the same plant, the difference of colour only arising from the method of preparation, the latter being allowed to ripen on the vine, while the former is plucked when green. It is said that the directors were always very tender to their Bencoolen establishment after they found out their mistake, about which they never provoked a discussion.*

* It was not very long after this that a somewhat extraordinary accident happened to the treasury chest at Bencoolen. A considerable discrepancy appeared between the amount to the credit of the public account and the specie actually on hand; in fact, several thousand dollars were wanting. Every effort was made to detect either error in the accounts or defalcation on the part of the inferior officers in the department, but neither the one nor the other could be established; and I believe that, in the end, the blame was laid upon the white ants—a most destructive insect, but one which had never before been known to extend its ravages to bullion. Still, however, it was left to the conjecture of the directors whether the dollars themselves or only the chest that contained them had been demolished, and they must have concluded the former, for they expressed no remonstrance, but despatched by first return opportunity a small parcel of steel files; and when the Bencoolen Government wrote home to ask for what purpose the files had been sent out, the directors answered that they were to be used against the teeth of the white ants, should these insects again prove troublesome to the money chest.

But when Sir Stamford Raffles came back from the administration of Java, where he had so distinguished himself, Bencoolen was constituted a Presidency, merely to confer upon him the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor; and it was very fortunate that the appointment was made, and that Sir Stamford Raffles held the independent powers he did; for had a reference been made before Singapore was taken possession of, as would have been necessary on the part of any inferior authority, the answer could not have come back in time to prevent the Dutch from completely shutting us out of the Johore territories.

Colonel Farquhar was appointed by Sir Stamford Raffles as first Resident, and continued to administer the internal affairs of the settlement for the first four years of its infancy. Great outcries continued to be made by the Dutch against the legality of the settlement; and the Dutch Governor of Malacca produced a treaty of twenty-three Articles made with the Rajah of Johore before Malacca had fallen into the hands of the English in 1795, and which professed to place that country and all its dependencies, including Singapore, under the control of Malacca. That such a treaty was made actually appears to have been the case; but Sir Stamford Raffles defeated its application by referring to the terms of the cession of Malacca to us in 1795, when the Dutch, with a cautious and scarcely honest policy, having in view to limit our ascendancy as much as possible, took care to declare that all the Malayan States connected with them were *free* and *independent*. The deception must have come back rather forcibly

upon themselves. These bickerings with the Dutch did not cease till the completion of the treaty with Holland in 1824, which gave us back Malacca, confirmed our possession of Singapore, and ceded us supremacy over all territories north of the Straits of Malacca, while it secured Rhio and Bencoolen and the supremacy of the native States south of the Straits to the Dutch.

The left or eastern bank of the Singapore river was the first selected for the site of the town. Colonel Farquhar built a residency bungalow on the ground in front of where the Court House now stands, with a number of smaller bungalows stretching eastward, along the present esplanade, for the accommodation of the other officers of Government. The cantonments for the military lay further back at the foot of Fort Canning.

As traders and merchants poured in, a plan of the town was drawn up, and the first allotments sold. This embraced the greater part of what is now called Campong Glam, as well as the lands fronting the beach eastward of the Institution buildings. These early sales were in fee simple, and contrary to the policy of the Company, who never gave away an absolute property in the soil, generally granting leases of 99 years; the reason being that they might, at any moment, order all residents to leave their possessions. As soon as Sir Stamford Raffles discovered his mistake, he called together the purchasers, and discharging them from the payment of their purchase-money gave them 99 years' leases of the land they had bought without any payment whatever.

In 1823, Colonel Farquhar retired to England, and Mr. Crawfurd, who had been a political agent of the Company, and had also held a high appointment during the occupation of Java, was installed by Sir Stamford Raffles in his place; and a few months afterwards, when Singapore ceased to be a dependency of Bencoolen, became Resident under the Government of Bengal. Both Sir Stamford Raffles and Mr. Crawfurd were literary men, and had commented on and criticized each other's political actions; but in June, 1823, when about to retire to England, and in handing the reins of government over to his old opponent, Sir Stamford Raffles said, "Mr. Crawfurd, there is no one to whom I could entrust the government of this infant settlement with so much pleasure as to yourself." Shortly after Mr. Crawfurd's accession, it was resolved, at the request of the merchants, who had grown a very considerable body, to build the town upon the western side of the river, where the mercantile portion of it is at the present day. At one corner of what is Commercial Square now, stood a large stony mound, and the rest was a mangrove swamp; but the swamp was filled up by excavations from the mound, and so in time was formed the level plateau on which the buildings now stand.

From the time of its settlement, Singapore had been maintained as a free port; whereas at Penang the impost of five per cent. duties was continued till the date of incorporation. With this advantage, added to its favourable geographical position, it is no wonder that Singapore grew and prospered, while the

older colony remained stationary, if, in fact, it did not in some respects retrograde. The merchants of the latter place made sad complaints, but they were always met by the fact that the government of this island already cost the Company some 60,000*l*. a year over and above the revenue. The government of Singapore, it is but fair to observe, was also carried on at a heavy loss.

In 1825, Malacca was again handed over to the English, and in the year following, Penang, Singapore, and Malacca were incorporated as one settlement; Mr. Fullerton, a Madras civilian, and formerly member of council of that presidency, was sent out as governor, and as Penang was still by far the largest of the three stations, he made that the seat of government. Mr. Prince, and afterwards Mr. Murchison, both old Bencoolen servants, were Resident Councillors at Singapore; Mr. Crawfurd having, previous to the incorporation, gone home to England, where he still lives one of the best and most active friends that the settlement possesses. In 1827, Sir John Claridge came out as first Recorder of the incorporated settlements.

At this time, the Company pursued very nearly the same jealous policy as the Dutch still do in Java, and no one, merchant or otherwise, was allowed to come out to India unless under what were termed "Free Mariner's Indentures." But Sir Stamford Raffles had never paid regard to this form, and had offered the greatest inducements to every one to come and settle freely in Singapore. Mr. Fullerton,

however, on one of his first visits to Singapore, issued letters addressed to all the residents, asking by what right they continued on the island. Only one or two possessed the required "indentures," and the others pleaded the invitation of Sir Stamford Raffles. The matter was referred to Calcutta, where it was allowed to drop; but Mr. Fullerton lost his popularity by the measure, as it was believed some personal pique lay at the bottom of it. Neither does Mr. Fullerton appear to have been fortunate in getting the machinery of government to work smoothly. On one occasion of the circuit of the supreme court to Singapore, Sir John Claridge, the Recorder, absolutely refused to proceed with the accommodation placed at his disposal by Mr. Fullerton, who as distinctly refused to furnish better; and the difference ended in Mr. Fullerton bringing down the court establishment, and holding the session at Singapore himself. These proceedings were afterwards referred home, and it is just to say that the Recorder was severely reprimanded. Mr. Fullerton, who had been eminently successful in the settlement of the land question at Madras, also made a great mistake by introducing here a tax upon cultivation similar to that which had succeeded in raising the revenue there. This drove many of the Chinese gardeners away from the island, and caused others to retire back into the jungle to be out of reach of taxation.

The condition of the Straits was far from satisfactory. The revenue had not increased, while the expenditure had steadily progressed till it approached

an annual deficit of about 100,000*l.*; and several expensive works had been commenced, including the erection at Singapore of Fort Fullerton; when, in March, 1827, Lord William Bentinck, the Governor-General, suddenly made his appearance armed with powers from the directors to remodel the system of government. Mr. Fullerton was at Malacca at the time, and he there received intimation from Lord Bentinck that if he proceeded to Anjer, one of the Company's ships would be at his service to convey him to India or England. The civil and military establishments were both greatly reduced, and it was at first contemplated to dispense with the office of Governor; but this was not carried out; a reduction in the stipend was made, and Mr. Ibbetson, who had been Resident Councillor at Penang, was appointed to the office. One of Lord Bentinck's observations on landing at Penang was, that he "could not see what the island was like, for the number of cocked hats which were in his way." We can readily believe that this was a pointed observation, when we remember the then population of the island, and reflect that its expenditure was nearly treble what it is now.

Great improvements were made about this time, 1830, in the appearance of the town of Singapore. The buildings around Commercial Square were nearly completed; and on the other side of the river, the court-house, which still forms one of the ornaments of the town, had been erected, and the land now forming the esplanade, which had been marked out by Mr. Fullerton in building lots, was made a reserve,

on the condition that all the buildings fronting it should be of an ornamental style of architecture. This one act of liberality on the part of the Company, by introducing among the residents a spirit of rivalry in elegant building, has done a great deal to give the town its present fine appearance.

Mr. Ibbetson retired from the governorship in 1833, after being three years in office, and was succeeded by Mr. Kenneth Murchison, who had been Resident Councillor at Singapore during Mr. Fullerton's time, and also at Penang during the governorship of Mr. Ibbetson. He did not bring any very great ability to bear upon the affairs of the island, and his administration was distinguished for its singular immunity from anything in the shape of excitement. In 1837, after four years' term of office, he proceeded to the Cape on his way home, and the acting governorship was handed over to Samuel G. Bonham, Esq. (afterwards created Sir S. G. Bonham). Mr. Bonham had been Resident Councillor at Singapore during Mr. Murchison's time, and had displayed abilities of no ordinary degree, so that his confirmation to the appointment of Governor was looked forward to with general favour. This, however, was for a time postponed, and, indeed, rendered doubtful, by a somewhat untoward event.

Mr. Church, who had held the office of police magistrate and Assistant Resident Councillor at Penang during the five years previous to 1835, and was consequently higher in rank than Mr. Bonham, retired in that year from the service, and proceeded home.

He had not been long there, however, before he repented of his resignation, and petitioned the Company to be allowed to rejoin, and this was allowed him on the condition that he should be placed at the bottom of the list for promotion. Mr. Church thereupon proceeded to Calcutta, *en route* to the Straits, and while there waited upon Sir Charles Metcalfe, then acting Governor-General of India, who asked him the period of his previous service. Mr. Church, unfortunately for himself, as it afterwards turned out, was by no means communicative on the point of his late resignation, and Sir Charles Metcalfe, judging that he was older in the service than Mr. Bonham, sent him on to the Straits with powers to relieve that gentleman of the acting governorship. This, on his arrival there, he did, and continued to administer the government for a few months; but it was not long before matters were cleared up, and as soon as this was the case, positions were reversed. Mr. Bonham was confirmed as Governor, and Mr. Church received the appointment under him of Resident Councillor. Singapore now, for the first time, was made the permanent residence of the Governor.

The period of Mr. Bonham's administration was in many respects an important one, extending, as it did, from 1837 to 1843. Singapore progressed with rapid strides in commercial importance; and it also came, for the first time, to be acknowledged as of the greatest strategic value. The China war broke out, and for nearly three years it formed the gathering point as well as, in a great measure, the point of

supply, of the fluctuating forces engaged in that struggle. It is described as a brilliant sight, the departure thence of the first great force for China. It was in April, 1839. For upwards of three months the vessels of war and transports had been flocking in, both from England and from India; and at last the array was complete. There were thirty-six transports and twelve men-of-war, and they left the harbour in two divisions at the firing of the same gun, each division led by a steamer. Admiral Maitland was in command of the fleet.

Mr. Bonham was a most liberal man, and all through the China war he kept open house. The expense of this hospitality was enormous, but it was borne uncomplainingly, and when the Company afterwards passed to his credit the sum of 30,000 rupees, they did about as little as they could have done.

In 1843, after six years of able administration, Mr. Bonham proceeded to Europe, and was a few years afterwards sent out to China as Governor of Hong Kong, which island had then recently been ceded to us. Colonel William John Butterworth (afterwards Major-General Butterworth, C.B.) succeeded to the governorship of the Straits. He had previously been assistant quartermaster-general of the Madras army, but had proceeded to the Cape on furlough in 1841. Here he met Lord Ellenborough, who was on his way out to assume the governor-generalship of India; and so favourable was the impression he made upon the future Viceroy, that, when he came back to India, the governorship of the Straits having been lately vacated

by Mr. Bonham, he received the offer of the appointment, and accepted it.

Colonel Butterworth's tenure of office was a very long one, extending over nearly twelve years, and witnessed considerable progress in the material prosperity of the island. The country lands which had hitherto been locked up by the Company, under the impression—derived, it is believed, from some reports made by Mr. Ibbetson—that in the monopoly of their cultivation there lay a rich mine of wealth, were now thrown open to the public; those within a certain radius of town were disposed of at ten rupees per acre, and those beyond it at five rupees per acre. This, in a few years, added considerably to the exports of the island, and Singapore promised soon to possess a valuable trade in local products. How it has come to pass that these expectations have been disappointed may be learned at another part of this volume. An improvement which closely followed, was the appointment of a municipal committee to look after the affairs of the town.

The close of Colonel Butterworth's administration was marked by two rather important events. The one was the outbreak of the first Chinese riot in 1854, and the other was the conclusion of a treaty between the Sultan and the Tumongong of Johore already alluded to, by which the former ceded to the latter the sovereignty of Johore. The first was an event entirely beyond the influence of our Government; but the second, which transferred a dynasty, certainly from weaker to more powerful hands, but, nevertheless,

from an ancient family of rulers to a family of subordinates, was thought by many to be the result of a scarcely fair exercise of the Governor's power in favour of a personal predilection. However, Colonel Butterworth has altogether earned well the esteem in which his memory is now held by the people of Singapore.*

In the latter part of 1855, Edmund Augustus Blundell, Esq., of the Civil Service, succeeded Colonel Butterworth. He had been for a long time commissioner of the Tenasserim provinces, and would most probably have been appointed to the governorship of the Straits twelve years before, had it not been for Lord Ellenborough's attachment to Colonel Butterworth. During Mr. Blundell's administration the great rebellion in India broke out, and with him it was that Lord Elgin was staying when he issued the famous order which deflected the troops of the China expedition at Anjer and sent them back to India. The news of the Indian revolt reached Singapore in the afternoon; all that night Lord Elgin remained pacing up and down his room in the Government bungalow that stood where Fort Canning stands now, holding various interviews with the naval and military officers of the expedition, and next morning at daylight a steamer was despatched to the Straits of Sunda with the order which, it is believed by many, saved the British empire in India.

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* Major-General Butterworth died about two years after he returned home. He had received his commission of Major-General just as he was stepping on board the vessel which was to convey him from the island which he had governed for twelve years.

The only two other events worth chronicling in Mr. Blundell's time were the breaking out of a somewhat protracted riot among the Chinese, and the handing over of the East India Company's ancient authority to the Crown.

In 1859 Colonel Cavanagh received from Lord Canning the appointment of Governor of the Straits. Colonel Cavanagh had twice distinguished himself in India; he had been actively engaged in the Punjaub war, where he had had the misfortune to lose a leg, and at the time the mutiny broke out he was town-major at Calcutta. For his skill and discretion in the latter capacity, which at such a time as that of the mutiny involved a rather important trust, he obtained great praise. When the mutiny had been suppressed, the office of town-major was abolished, and Colonel Cavanagh accepted the vacant office of Governor of the Straits, very much in the light of a temporary appointment. The agitation for the transfer of the settlement to the Crown had already commenced, and as Lord Canning was one of those most favourable to it, he was particular, when making the appointment, to explain its probably short-lived nature.

Colonel Cavanagh's term of office, however, has, contrary to expectation, extended quite as long as that of most Governors of the settlement, being only exceeded by that of Mr. Bonham and that of Colonel Butterworth. It has also witnessed a very marked progress in commercial prosperity, and has not been chequered by any local or national misfortune. It has

witnessed the uncontested imposition of a stamp-tax, and the successful resistance of a measure to burden the port with tonnage dues.

Of the eight Governors whom the settlement has possessed since its foundation, few have probably been more painstaking than the present. He possesses in a singular degree the ambition and the perseverance to make himself well acquainted with even the most minute affairs of his government; and men of much longer residence are scarcely better informed as to the character and peculiarities of the population, as to the capabilities of the soil and the extent of its cultivation, or as to the elements of the settlement's commerce. This is amply evidenced by the administration reports now issued annually, and which embrace a much wider range of subjects than they did in previous years. But the limited power which has hitherto been entrusted to the local government of the Straits is little calculated to develope administrative ability to the full. And, though surrounded by important interests and events, the Governors have but too often found that they can interfere neither with dignity nor effect. It is to be trusted, that when the settlement comes under the more direct control of the Imperial Government, its Governor will be vested with full powers as her Majesty's representative and plenipotentiary for the Malay Peninsula and the Indian Archipelago.

CHAPTER II.

SCENERY: SINGAPORE FROM SEAWARD.

Surpasses in Loveliness that of Ceylon and Java—Green Islets—The Old Strait—Lake Scenery—Ancient Piracy—Native Craft—Wood Rafts—Singapore Harbour—Eastern Approach—Approach from Westward—Mount Faber—P. and O. Company—Projected new Dock—H.M.'s Dockyards—Present Dock—Shipping in the Roadstead—Men-of-War—Chinese Junks—Coolie Horrors—Malay Prahus—Small Boats—Coral—The Town Frontage—Fort Fullerton—Public Buildings—Old Residences—St. Andrew's Church—Background—Fort Canning.

A GREAT deal has been written about the natural beauties of Ceylon and Java, and some theologians, determined to give the first scene in the Mosaic narrative a local habitation, have fixed the Paradise of unfallen man on one or other of those noble islands. Nor has their enthusiasm carried them to any ridiculous extreme; for the beauty of some parts of Java and Ceylon might well accord with the description given us, or, rather, which we are accustomed to infer, of that land from which man was driven on his first great sin.

I have seen both Ceylon and Java, and admired in no grudging measure their many charms; but for calm placid loveliness, I should place Singapore high

above them both. It is a loveliness, too, that at once strikes the eye, from whatever point we view the island, which combines all the advantages of an always beautiful and often imposing coast-line with an endless succession of hill and dale stretching inland. The entire circumference of the island is one panorama, where the magnificent tropical forest, with its undergrowth of jungle, runs down at one place to the very water's edge, dipping its large leaves into the glassy sea, and at another is abruptly broken by a brown rocky cliff, or a late landslip over which the jungle has not yet had time to extend itself. Here and there, too, are scattered little green islands, set like gems on the bosom of the hushed water, between which the excursionist, the trader, or the pirate, is wont to steer his course. "Eternal summer gilds these shores;" no sooner has the blossom of one tree passed away than that of another takes its place, and sheds fresh perfume all around; as for the foliage, that never seems to die. Perfumed isles are in many people's minds merely fabled dreams, but they are easy of realization here. There is scarcely a part of the island, except those few places where the original forest and jungle have been cleared away, from which at night time, on the first breathings of the land winds, may not be felt those lovely forest perfumes, even at the distance of more than a mile from shore. These land winds—or, more properly, land airs, for they can scarcely be said to blow, but only to breathe—usually commence at 10 o'clock at night and continue till within an hour or two of sunrise—they are welcomed

by all; by the sailor because they speed him on either course, and by the wearied resident because of their delicious coolness.

The old Strait of Singhapura, that lies between Singapore and the mainland of Johore, at what we now term the back of the island, presents, probably, the most attractive scenery. There the hand of man has been but little at work, and nature has been left to paint her own picture. Besides this, the narrowness and tortuous character of the straits at many places gives the appearance of lake scenery, and the invariable glassy stillness of the sea increases the similitude. This channel, as I have stated elsewhere, was for centuries the only thoroughfare to ships passing to the eastward of Malacca; and it was little more than eighty years ago that it was abandoned in favour of the channel which flows past the present harbour of Singapore; and so land-locked is it, that it is not easily understood how the existence of a passage there was at first conceived. At one or two points, facing this old channel, and these selected with great taste, bungalows have been built; and on the mainland opposite is an extensive saw-mill, the joint property of the Tumongong, and a mercantile house of Singapore.

Not very many years ago all the villages along the shores of this old strait were so many nests of piratical marauders, who carried on their depredations with a high hand, sometimes adventuring upon distant voyages in fleets of forty or fifty prahus. Indeed, it is stated in the old Malay annals, that for nearly

two hundred years the entire population of Singapore and the surrounding islands, and of the sea frontage of Johore, subsisted upon fishing and pirating; the former occupation only being resorted to when the prevailing monsoon was too strong to admit of the successful prosecution of the latter. Strange stories are told of these pirating days, and old grey-headed men still may be heard to gloat over the prowess they displayed and the victims they despatched ere what they account English over-sensitiveness put a check upon the system. It seems, however, that they themselves had always a lurking consciousness that the practice of piracy was scarcely justifiable according to strict rules of right and wrong; and they invariably did their best to obliterate every trace of their crimes, by systematically destroying all those whom they robbed. The idea was simple and primitive, but it was effectual in serving its purpose, and the individual pirates, did they afterwards find it to their advantage to pursue an honest walk in life, had no fear that their old sins would be brought in judgment against them.

By the constant vigilance of our authorities at Singapore, and by the combined action of the Dutch and the native princes of the surrounding States, piracy on an extensive scale in this neighbourhood has been now put an end to, and we hear very seldom of any case where a combination is attempted. Still, however, solitary instances of piracy, accompanied by the most cold-blooded and brutal murder, continue to obtrude themselves upon our notice, and take their

place on the criminal calendars of the settlement; and it is distressing to reflect that justice is in most cases defeated, owing to the unreliable and often contradictory nature of native evidence.

Of the numberless prahus, sampans, lorchas, pukats and tongkangs, therefore, that in these days give life to the waters of the old strait, and between its numerous islands, nearly all have honest purposes, fishing, timber-carrying, or otherwise trading. A very extraordinary flotilla of a rather nondescript character may be often seen in this part of the straits at certain seasons of the year. These are huge rafts of unsawn, newly-cut timber; they are generally 500 or 600 feet long, and 60 or 70 feet broad, the logs being skilfully laid together, and carefully bound by strong rattan-rope, each raft containing often 2,000 logs. They have always one or two attap-houses built upon them, and carry crews of twenty or twenty-five men; the married men taking their wives and children with them. The timber composing them is generally cut many miles away, in some creek or river on the mainland, so that they have to perform long voyages ere they reach a market—either Singapore or the Tumongong's saw-mills already referred to. Sails are used when they are crossing from one coast to another, but not otherwise, as it is found more expeditious to haul them along. For this purpose a windlass is erected about ten feet high, with a bench behind it on which some ten or twelve of the crew sit, driving, or rather treading, the barrel round with their feet by projecting cogs. Attached to the barrel of the

windlass is a strong rattan-rope, about the eighth of a mile long, with an anchor at the end, which is run out by a small boat to its full stretch, and the anchor dropt. The winding on the windlass then commences, and goes on till the anchor is reached, when it is weighed and again sent out. This is necessarily a very slow means of progression, and impracticable in certain conditions of the weather, and these voyages often occupy months; but if the raft is successfully brought to market, its price amply repays the venture, and renders one voyage in six months a satisfactory return.

But though the old strait displays more wildness of tropical scenery, it can scarcely be said to exceed in loveliness the side which faces the present thoroughfare of shipping. The harbour of Singapore is formed of an extensive bay on the southern coast of the island about equidistant from its extremities. The approach from the eastward is comparatively tame in appearance, cocoanut plantations extending along its coast for miles, with here and there a little fishing village standing out in relief; yet the contrast between the dark foliage of the trees and the snowy whiteness of the sandy beach is very pleasing. It is at the western entrance, through New Harbour, however, that the greatest measure of beauty is to be found. This is the side from which Singapore is approached by those who come from home to take up their sojourn there; and no wonder that they enter their new home predisposed in its favour, for the scene is one very rarely to be surpassed in the world, certainly not in the English

Vincent Brooks, Day

VIEW AT THE ENTRANCE TO NEW HARBOUR — SINGAPORE

East Indies. In making this harbour, the steamer enters between the large island and a cluster of little islets, standing high out of the water with rocky banks, and covered to their summits by rich green jungle, with here and there a few forest trees stretching their tall trunks high into the air, and crowned at their tops by small compact clumps of leaves and branches. On several of the most lovely points of this entrance, residences, or rather watering-places, have been built by some of the merchants, which add to, rather than detract from, the beauty of the scene, their snow-white walls and porticoes peering out from the rich foliage which surrounds them, or looking boldly down from some chaste eminence which they surmount. One of the most beautifully situated of these is Bukit Chermin—(Mirror Hill.) It stands on a conical promontory overlooking the entrance to New Harbour, and in sailing past it the image which is reflected from the glassy water beneath is but little less perfect than the original above. Under the vessel's keel, too, as she passes slowly over the shoaler patches of the entrance, may be seen those beautiful beds of coral, which in their variegated colours and fantastic shapes appear to vie with the scenery above. As soon as the passage between the main island and these small islets is half-way passed, and New Harbour reached, Mount Faber, the summit of which only has been hitherto visible, is seen to the full view. It has been cleared of jungle, and its sides, as also those of the neighbouring hills, are serried from top to bottom in a peculiar manner, not unlike potato-fields at home,

but in larger furrows; these are the pineries belonging to the Tumongong, and from which Singapore is chiefly supplied with this its staple fruit. On the very summit of Mount Faber stands a flagstaff, from which vessels approaching from the west can be seen at a distance of sixteen miles; it also repeats the signals of the town flagstaff at Fort Canning, and so great is the commerce of the Straits, that from sunrise to sunset they are both plentifully decked out in bunting.

On the top of this hill are two mortars, and lower down is a battery of two 56-pounder guns, with barracks attached, forming part of the far-famed fortifications of Singapore. It is difficult to say whether the two gaping mortars on the top of the hill, or the two lonely guns below, convey the greatest feeling of desolation and decay. The very sepoys that guard the latter—for they don't man them—seem touched with the melancholy of neglect.

The P. and O. Company's wharves, at which their steamers lie, are situated at the head of a small bay, with the island of Pulo Brani in front. This bay is completely shut in on all sides from the view of the Straits, and is distant from town by water or by road about 2½ miles; it is commonly designated New Harbour, but the name equally applies to the whole of the land-locked passage between the south shore of Singapore and the small islets lying off its western extremity, about 3 miles in extent, and of which the P. and O. Company's wharves only occupy a small frontage. It is not, properly speaking, a harbour at all; for vessels rarely ride at anchor there, the

narrowness of the channel, and the strong tides that run through it, rendering this unsafe; they only come there to discharge their cargoes, which, from the deepness of the water, they are enabled to do at the wharves. Though there are wharves belonging to two other companies in New Harbour, still those of the P. and O. Company are the most extensive, and the coal-sheds and other premises attached to them are of great extent, and must represent a large amount of capital. The coal-sheds of this company are all built of brick, and tile roofed, and they are capable of containing—as, in fact, they often do contain—about 20,000 tons of coal. The wharves are strong and substantial, and have altogether a frontage of about 1,200 feet. What with these and the warehouses attached, I should judge that the marketable value of the P. and O. Company's premises at New Harbour alone (for they have coal-sheds in Singapore besides) is very little under 70,000*l*. I have often thought if the shareholders in this company had an opportunity to inspect the company's establishments east of Suez, that they would be somewhat slower of parting with their shares at the modest premiums they do.

The mail steamers never come into the roadstead now, but land their passengers and cargo at these wharves. Most of the passengers, whether their ultimate destination be Singapore or not, land, and drive up to town to inspect for themselves the beauties of a place the approach to which is so lovely; those who remain on board, however, may

find entertainment in the feats of swarms of small Malay boys, who immediately surround a steamer on her arrival, in toy boats, just big enough to float them, and induce the passengers to cast cents or other small coins into the water, for which they dive down, and in almost every case succeed in recovering. I may mention here, in case I should not have another opportunity, that almost all the ships visiting Singapore have their bottoms examined, and some have had as many as twenty or thirty sheets of copper put on by Malay divers. One man will put on as many as two sheets in an hour, going down, perhaps, a dozen times, and when such vessels have afterwards had to go into dock, not a fault could be found with the manner in which these odd sheets had been fixed.

On leaving New Harbour to come out into the roadstead, the scenery loses considerably in effect by several long mud and coral reefs which run a long way out from the shore, and are dry at low water. It is on this part of the coast that the projectors of the Tanjong Paggar Dock Company have determined to construct their works. Opinion seems to differ to a great extent as to the suitability of the position in respect of the tides, the nature of the bottom, and otherwise. The balance of local authority, however, seems to be in its favour. Five years ago there was no dock whatever in Singapore, though as far back as fifteen years, specifications and estimates for one on the island of Pulo Brani, fronting the P. and O. Company's premises in the New Harbour passage, were prepared, and received the approbation both of

the Government and the merchants; but from a want of combination, the scheme was left to progress slowly by the private efforts of the projector, till four years ago, her Majesty's Admiralty took possession of the site and the works which had already been constructed there, no grant for the land ever having been obtained by the persevering projector. Still there are certain claims resulting from this appropriation by the Government, which should not be overlooked. In 1857 a private proprietary undertook an enterprise similar to that which had so long hung fire on the hands of the public. And at the western extremity of New Harbour, that is, at its entrance, a dock 400 feet long was dug out of the rock, and furnished with the necessary appliances to take up and repair at once two vessels of 800 tons each. This dock, called the New Harbour dock, has been in operation four years; but, as has generally been found at ports situated in the fair way of a large traffic, the facilities for docking have increased the demand, and at times vessels requiring repairs have to lie as long as six weeks waiting their turns to get into dock. The new company proposes to provide the additional accommodation, and should it succeed in doing so, the result, whatever it may be to its own shareholders and to the proprietors of the old dock, cannot fail to be beneficial in the highest degree to the Straits.

On rounding the eastern exit of New Harbour, the shipping and harbour of Singapore at once bursts on the view, with the white walls of the houses and the dark verdure of the shrubbery of the town nearly, if

not altogether, hid by the network of spars and rigging that intervenes. It is truly a noble sight the shipping that rides throughout the year in the road-stead of Singapore; for the box-shaped, heavy-rigged East Indiamen that thirty years ago carried the then moderate freight of the island, have been exchanged for the beautifully modelled clipper or frigate-built ships of the finest building yards in Great Britain and America; their tall, slim, raking spars reaching in the view from seaward high above the hilly background of the island.

Neither is the harbour without a good supply of steamers; there is scarcely any time during the year when there are less than half a dozen steam-vessels in the port, and not unfrequently there are twice that number. Of these, not a few are war vessels—British, French, Russian, Austrian, Spanish, American, Dutch, and, I may also say, Confederate and Chinese, for here has harboured the renowned *Alabama*, and on Singapore waters has been borne almost all of the notorious Anglo-Chinese fleet under Captain Sherard Osborn; it may also, in these days, be worth recording that it has harboured an Italian merchantman commanded by the famous Garibaldi. The greater number of the steamers, however, are those which belong to private firms or companies, and are engaged in trade between India, China, Java, Siam, Borneo, &c.; and among them there are probably as fair specimens of naval architecture as are to be found afloat. The opium steamers, those belonging to Messrs. Jardine, of China, and to the Messrs. Cama, of Bombay, especially, lack nothing

either in beauty of model or effectiveness of machinery which money can secure. The boats of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, too, that carry the mails are some of them fine ships to look at; and it is but justice to say that those of the Messageries Imperiales are the largest, swiftest, and finest-fitted of any steamers that have yet been placed on the route between China and Europe for the purpose of passenger traffic.

But it is not so much from the fine character of its foreign merchantmen that the harbour of Singapore is chiefly remarkable; it is rather from the extraordinary variety of nondescript native craft that swarm in its shoaler waters. Most peculiar and most striking of all are the huge Chinese junks, some of 600 or 700 tons measurement, which during the greater part of the year lie anchored there. Though the largest of these junks must measure quite as much as I state, yet the great majority are much smaller; but it is singular that in shape, and generally in rig, all are nearly similar. Indeed, the very sampans, or two-oared China boats, used to convey native passengers and luggage to and from the ships and the shore, are identical in shape. All have alike the square bow and the broad flat stern; and, from the largest to the smallest, on what in a British vessel would be called her "head boards," all have the two eyes embossed and painted. John Chinaman's explanation of this custom, according to general account, "no got eyes no can see," is but little complimentary to the good sense of his utilitarian and sensible nation. I rather

incline to the belief that these "eyes," as they are called, are significant of the new moon, and represent, as such, some principle in the Buddhist religion. About the months of March and April the greatest number of these junks are to be seen in harbour. They come down from China towards the close of the north-east monsoon, and remain till the opposite or south-west monsoon sets in to enable them to return, for they never attempt to make headway against a prevailing wind. During these two months as many as fifty large junks, besides many smaller ones, lie at anchor in the eastern corner of the harbour. Some are painted red, some green, some black, and others yellow; each colour, I have been told, being the badge of the particular province to which they severally belong. The ornamental painting is confined chiefly to the stern, which generally bears some elaborate and fantastic figuring, conspicuous in which can invariably be traced the outlines of a spread eagle, not unlike that which is borne on the reverse of the American dollars. The rigging of these craft consists, when in harbour, of little else than a few coir or rattan ropes rove through the tops of the three bare spars or masts, the centre one standing up about perpendicular, the one forward leaning at about an angle of 15 degrees over the bows, and the after one leaning at about the same angle over the stern. It is difficult, while looking at these junks, to imagine how they can manage in a sea way; and yet they must at times encounter the heaviest weather along the Chinese coast in the northern latitudes. It is true that when they encounter

a gale they generally run before it, but yet, in a typhoon, this would be of little avail to ease a ship. There is no doubt they must possess some good qualities, and probably speed with a fair wind in a smooth sea is one of them. Not many years ago, a boat-builder in Singapore bought one of the common sampans used by the coolie boatmen, which are of exactly the same shape as the junks, and rigged her like an English cutter, giving her a false keel and a shifting weather-board; and, strange to say, won with her every race that he tried for at the regattas. I don't know why the experiment was not improved upon; I suppose the unsightly and unsailorlike aspect of the craft was the chief deterrent.

Passing through between these junks about sunset is a singular spectacle. Amid the beating of gongs, ringing of bells, and discordant shouts, the nightly religious ceremonies of the sailors are performed, consisting chiefly in the burning and scattering about of gilt paper, the swinging to and fro of lanterns and lighted torches; one's boat, too, as it passes close to them during these ceremonies, not unfrequently receives a shower of the rare condiments which are scattered on the sea as an offering of their worship.

But many of the junks which lie quietly at anchor there, could, if they had the power to speak, tell sad tales of human suffering. The chief trade of not a few of them is the traffic of human freight; and it is unfortunately of such a generally remunerative character as to leave but little hope of its voluntary abandonment. The demand for labour, and the wages

paid in Singapore, are so considerable, as to induce a large number of junks yearly to sail from China with men, picked up, and stowed away on board, under what misrepresentations it is very difficult to say, and on arrival they are kept on board till a bargain for their employment is effected. It appears that no passage money is demanded from these emigrants before leaving China, but that they are made to pledge so many years of their labour on the condition of bare sustenance only. Large premiums, at least five or six times the mere cost of passage, are at once offered by the gambier and pepper planters of the island for the transfer of these contracts; and when the bargain is struck the coolies are hurried off to some isolated clearance in the midst of the jungle, before they can have communication either with the authorities, or with their own countrymen in town. It is not, however, by the endurance of cruelty or of unreasonably long terms of servitude, when the men are arrived, that the laws of humanity are in much danger of violation. One or two years at most, and the new arrivals become acquainted with their rights as English subjects, and with the knowledge how to enforce them. The danger is in the overcrowding of the vessels that bring them; in this, the poor fellows have not even the protection that is secured to the African slave, in so far that by their death, though there may be a loss of profit, there can be none of capital to the shipper. The men cost nothing, and the more the shipper can cram into his vessel the greater must be his profit. It would be a better

speculation for the trader whose junk could only carry properly 300 men, to take on board 600—and lose 250—on the way down, than it would be for him to start with his legitimate number and land them all safely; for, in the first case, he would bring 350 men to market, and, in the other, only 300. That this process of reasoning is actually put in practice by the Chinese, there was not long ago ample and very mournful evidence to prove. Two of these passenger junks had arrived in the harbour, and had remained unnoticed for about a week, during which the owners had bargained for the engagement of most of their cargo. At this time two dead bodies were found floating in the harbour; an inquest was held, and it then transpired that one of these two junks on her way down from China had lost 250 men out of 600—and the other 200 out of 400. The bodies upon which the coroner's inquest was held, were two of the sickly passengers who had died after arrival, and whose corpses the owners, forgetful that they were now in harbour, had tossed into the water as doubtless they daily had the bodies of their companions on the voyage from China. It is needless to say that no Europeans are in any way engaged in this traffic.

But the Chinese junks are not the only remarkable craft that are borne on the smooth waters of Singapore harbour. There are the prahus, pukats and tongkangs, besides some completely illegitimate ships in the shape of old European hulls, which their Chinese owners, with a strange persistency in their national distinctions, have had cut down, patched and

rigged to look as near the junk genus as possible. They are far from pretty, and doubtless the reverse of manageable; but there is possibly something flattering to the vanity of the Chinaman in thus reversing the legitimate order of affairs, and, as it were, turning back civilization to the old barbarian channels.

The Malay prahus are the craft of the native inhabitants of the Straits, and therefore peculiarly interesting. Though slightly similar in shape, they are never so large as the Chinese junks, seldom being over fifty or sixty tons' burden. They have only one large mast, or rather tripod, made of three large bamboos lashed together at the top, but some two or three feet asunder at the bottom; across two legs of the tripod small pieces of bamboo are lashed, making a sort of ladder up to the block at the head, through which the haulyards of the large single sail are rove. This sail is in the shape of an English lug-sail, but with much more width than depth, and with a yard both at top and bottom; it is generally made of coarse grass-cloth, very light and gauzy, and rolled round the lower yard, through the forward end of which a cross-bar or handle is placed, by turning which the sail can either be set, reefed or furled, with great ease from the deck. These prahus would doubtless from their build sail well were it not for the top-hamper they carry near the stern, which, though composed of the lightest material, nevertheless renders any attempt to make headway against the wind impossible—it is not unusual for one of them to have the deck only three feet out of the water forward, and for

the top of the housing at the stern to be at least fifteen feet in height. Another peculiarity they possess is that they are steered by two rudders—one on either quarter.

In addition to the ships and native craft that are crowded together in the harbour, there are hundreds of small boats of all descriptions constantly pulling about, selling fruit, provisions, birds, monkeys, shells, and coral. The birds and monkeys generally find a ready sale; the former are of beautiful plumage, and the latter are a very small tractable species; but the shells and corals which are daily hawked about by these boatmen are of the rarest and most lovely descriptions. The corals are especially beautiful, and probably in no other part of the world could a finer collection be made; they are of all tints and hues, green, purple, pink, blue, mauve, and in shape often resemble flowers and shrubbery; a whole boat-load of them can be obtained for a dollar and a half, or two dollars,—and I have often wondered that among the curiosities which are picked up and carried away from Singapare more of these beautiful specimens are not included.

As the outer shipping is passed, the town of Singapore comes distinctly before the view. But the word town, in its usual acceptation, fails to convey the appearance which Singapore presents to its harbour. However dense and crowded together some of the native divisions may be, this does not show from seaward, and the houses and buildings appear beautifully interspersed with patches of garden and

clumps of trees. The town has a frontage to the bay of not much less than three miles, and is divided at its centre by the Singapore river, on the western side of the entrance of which stands Fort Fullerton, with the black muzzles of nine 68-pounder guns peeping from its grassy embrasures, and showing a pretty little bungalow behind surrounded by shrubbery. From Fort Fullerton westward to a deep turn of the bay, a fine stone sea-wall has been constructed with a long range of elegant godowns in course of erection, the land on which they are being built having not long been reclaimed from the sea. Further to westward of this, but in a recess of the bay, the line of native houses commences, gradually becoming broken by the intervening patches of cocoanut and fruit trees, until Fort Palmer is reached, where four guns guard the town's extreme western limit.

The eastern side of the river, however, presents the most picturesque view to the harbour. This is the non-mercantile half of the town, and the one upon which all the public buildings are erected. Close to the river, facing Fort Fullerton, stand the court-house and town-hall; both large, fine edifices, and ornamental in design, but which are only partly visible from the seaward, through some splendid drooping Augsana trees, which were planted nearly forty years ago, and have now grown to fifty or sixty feet in height, with evergreen wide-spreading branches, clad in their season with fragrant golden blossoms, and casting a dense shade for many yards around them. Farther to the eastward commences a succession of handsome lofty

mansions, which years ago, while the present suburbs of the town were yet jungle, constituted the residences of the merchants and Government officials. They are all large buildings, generally kept snowy white with pillared porticoes and balconies, and green-painted latticed doors and windows; to each also is attached a compound or garden of fair dimensions, tastefully laid out with trees and shrubs. Few of these houses are now in use as private residences, some of the best are taken up for hotels, and one is used as the masonic lodge. The line of these old beach residences is first broken by the noble pile of St. Andrew's Church, one of the largest cathedrals in India, which, begun in 1855, has only this year been completed. Close to the church is Raffles Institution, a fine square, massive clump of buildings, with some stately old trees around it. Further to the eastward, and about a mile from the river, the native houses commence, but they are shut out of view to a great extent by the projecting promontory of Tanjong Rhoo, which leads away to the cocoanut plantations which I described before as lining the eastern approach to the harbour; and here a white obelisk, standing out from the dark shade of the trees, marks the eastern limit of the harbour.

The background is no less lovely than the front of the picture; peering over the red tiled roofs of the houses just described are an endless succession of little knoll-like hills, covered with nutmeg and fruit trees of all varieties, and each crowned by a white walled bungalow. But most prominent in the background is the hill on which Fort Canning has been constructed,

and which rises up abruptly about a quarter of a mile inland from the beach; it is almost pyramidal in shape, covered from its base up to the ramparts with beautiful green turf, and crowned with a cluster of thick foliaged trees, through which the garrison buildings can barely show their white walls and red roofs. Here, too, is erected the town flagstaff, kept pretty constantly busy signalling the daily arrivals in the harbour.

Such is the appearance of the island and town of Singapore, as it is viewed from seaward. As I have stated before, the entire circle of its coast presents an endless panorama, most beautiful where its wild forests are untouched, picturesque where are clustered together the leaf-built houses of its native villages, and most interesting and little less lovely where stands its European capital. For forty-five years have the hands of man been busy accumulating wealth on its bosom, and yet scarce a scar is visible. Nor do I believe that in twice that number of years will the island present a less charming picture than it does now.

CHAPTER III.

SINGAPORE: THE TOWN.

Ancient Tradition—Crowded Streets—Commercial Square—Verandahs—Vigour of Nature—The River—Crowd of Boats—Busy Wharves—Proposed Pier—Native Part of the Town—Native Shops—Chinese Trades—Opium Shops—Manner of Smoking—Chinese Barbers—Itinerant Vendors—Street Scribes—Dangerous Driving—River Bridges—Eastern Division of the Town—St. Andrew's Cathedral—Court House—Town Hall—Night View.

Among the traditions that are handed down to us concerning the early inhabitants of the island of Singapore, there is one which deserves to be distinguished from many of the others, in so far that some substantial record is left behind, which will at least serve to perpetuate its memory, if it cannot materially assist its authenticity. On the western entrance of the mouth of the Singapore River, near that portion which is now built over by Fort Fullerton, stood, as late as 1835, a large stone, with some strange characters carved or impressed on it, the deciphering of which has defied the utmost ingenuity. Sir Stamford Raffles was so much occupied with the desire to learn the meaning of these hieroglyphics, that he caused, it is said, an abundant supply of muriatic acid to be poured over the stone, with the view to clear off any crustaceous matter that

might have accumulated on it, and bring out more clearly the characters it bore. Unfortunately, however, the experiment failed, as has every more recent attempt either to decipher the letters or to arrive, through them, at a true knowledge of the date of their inscription; and we are still left to the old legend regarding them. It has been differently told, but the most common account is, that a powerful chief—of what country is not very clear—coming to attack the Malays shortly after they had formed their settlement at Singhapura, landed at this point of the island, and proceeded up the hill to the Malay encampment. He was met, it appears, on his approach, by the greatest Sampson among the Malays, named Badang; and, after some altercation, it was agreed that instead of engaging in a general combat, a trial of strength between the foreign chief and the Malay Sampson should decide the fate of the invasion. A large piece of rock was lying close at hand, and it was decided that whoever could handle this stone with the greatest ease, was to be declared the victor. The invader tried first, and he succeeded in raising the stone as high as his knees, and then let it fall; on which the Malay, seizing it in one hand, balanced it high in the air, took a steady aim, and shot it right out to the mouth of the river, crushing to pieces the boat from which the invader had landed. Others, who agree in the first part of the story, as I have told it, maintain that instead of the stone, the Malay giant seized the invading chief himself, and hurled him back upon his boat, and that the stone was afterwards conveyed

there to commemorate the deed. In any case the invading force, fearing that they would be immolated if they had to combat with a race of men like Badang, beat a precipitate retreat.

I have begun my chapter with this tradition because it is the only one I know of related by the Malays which serves to fix the exact locality of their very early settlement on the island. And it is singular that the spot marked out by this stone, where tradition says the invading chief disembarked 600 or 700 years ago, is but a few yards from the present landing-pier by the site of Fort Fullerton; and as the Malay encampment, according to the story, was but a stone's throw distant, it in all probability stood just where the modern town stands to-day. But the scene which is presented to the traveller on landing now forms a striking contrast to that which moved the cupidity of the invading chief, and tempted him to try his strength with the Malay giant. In place of the little pathway that must have led through the jungle to the Malay village, composed, probably, of a cluster of attap-covered huts, are now the busy thoroughfares of a great commercial emporium. The first thing that strikes the stranger on landing as remarkable is this appearance of bustle and activity, heightened by the motley character of those who compose the crowd. The street leading from the landing-place to Commercial Square, the great business centre of the town, is a rather narrow one, with a constant stream of Chinese, Malays, Klings, Parsees, and Mussulmen, pouring one way and the other.

Their costumes are as varied as their nationalities. From the simple white rag of the nearly naked Kling, to the heavy flowing dress of the Mahommedan Hadjee, almost every shade of colour, and every variety of habit which it is possible to imagine, are here mingled together. The neatest style of dress is probably that of the better class of Chinese; the most picturesque, and, to them, most becoming, is the Malay costume.

But the place itself is no less Oriental in appearance than its inhabitants, though considerably less so here than at the native parts of the town lying further back. Commercial Square, which, ever since the settlement rose into importance has been the principal locality for the European houses of business, is about 200 yards from the landing, but completely shut in from a view of the sea. It is built round a reserved piece of ground, turfed over with green sod and tastefully laid out with flowers and shrubs, which afford to the eye a pleasing relief from the glare of the whitewashed walls of the square, while the open space ensures good ventilation to the neighbourhood. The square itself is some 200 yards long by fifty broad, and many of the houses, or rather godowns (the latter term being used to denote mercantile establishments), which surround it, are of very elegant design. They are all built of brick and plastered over, but as both labour and materials have at no period since the settlement of the place been costly, their construction and finish is good. Some of the finest now standing are twenty or thirty years old. They are two

stories high, lofty, and with heavy, overleaning eaves; and the lower part of the front wall is composed of a series of arches or pillars inside of which a verandah runs from building to building. It appears that, in most cases, the early grants for town lands were in the nature of 99 and 999 years' leases, and imposed an obligation on the lessee to erect buildings with verandahs of a certain width for foot passengers. The clause seems, however, not to have been strictly insisted upon, and many of the verandahs were blocked up until about a year ago, when the municipal commissioners raised the point in the Supreme Court and obtained judgment in their favour. Since then, the verandahs have been kept tolerably clear, which, in the narrower and more crowded thoroughfares of the town, is a great advantage to pedestrians, there being no pavement. In the centre of the square is the telegraph-office, connecting New Harbour with the town, and at one end of it is the favourite stand for hack-gharries, which, with their drivers, form by no means an ornamental feature of the town. Four of the buildings fronting the square are occupied by banks, each with an English proprietary, and the everlasting chink of dollars to be heard on passing these establishments is almost deafening. All the cashiers in the banks, as, indeed, in mercantile establishments generally, are Chinamen, who count and, at the same time, test the genuineness of dollars with remarkable exactitude and rapidity, by pouring them from one hand to the other. By the ring which the dollars give in falling, they are able at once to detect

base metal and even light coin. These men keep their cash accounts not in the English but in the Chinese character, and it is remarkable that they are never known to be incorrect.

Till within the last year, the European business was almost entirely confined to this square, but a good deal of it is likely to be deflected to the sea frontage immediately in advance, where, upon land recently recovered from the sea, a fine terrace of godowns is being built, some of which are already in occupation. These buildings are being constructed as nearly uniform as possible, and though they are not, individually considered, finer than some of the old ones in the square, still, viewed together, they will most probably form the finest part of the commercial half of the town.

It is remarkable to witness occasionally in the midst of the busiest parts of the town the struggle made by nature to assert her presence. It is not an uncommon sight to see ferns and creepers clustering about the tiled roofs of the older buildings, with no other soil than the damp mould which time has collected. I have witnessed a still harder struggle on the part of nature; it was a small shoot of the papaia-tree which had taken root in a soft and probably earthy part of the plaster of the perpendicular wall of a godown. It grew up gradually, till it appeared to have exhausted all the nutriment about its root, and then it remained stationary for a long time, and I even thought it was growing less in bulk. About six months afterwards, however, to my surprise

Vincent Brooks, lith.

THE RIVER AND TOWN OF SINGAPORE, FROM FORT CANNING.

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it began to flourish again, and on examining it more closely I found that it had sent down small threads like feelers a distance of about twenty feet to the ground, and through these was doubtless drawing up a fresh supply of aliment. Unfortunately it outgrew the strength of its foundation, and one rainy day the plaster gave way, and it was hurled to the ground. I have been the more particular in alluding to this instance, because it was altogether against the nature of the plant to throw out long roots. No less remarkable than the efforts which vegetation will here make to get nutriment, is the small allowance on which it will subsist. I have seen a plant spring from a durian seed that had got lodged in some soil contained in a cocoanut-shell which lay on the roof of a building, and grow up till the stem was nearly half an inch in diameter.

Besides the landing-pier at Fort Fullerton, there are landing-steps at different points of the river inside the bar; and probably the entry to the town by the river is the most imposing. Outside the entrance nothing can be seen but Fort Fullerton running out on the extreme point of the western bank, and the heavy trees that surround the court-house and post-office on the eastern side. Immediately the sharp angle of the entrance is passed, however, a very fine view suddenly bursts upon the eye. The river, which is exceedingly narrow at its mouth, expands inside till it forms a circular basin, sweeping round on the western or town side, and gradually closing again till, at a quarter of a mile up, it is even narrower than at its

mouth. It is here crossed by an iron girder bridge, named after the late Lord Elgin. From the river's entrance to this bridge, on the town side, a long range of godowns extend, forming a complete crescent. Those nearer the entrance are occupied by Europeans, but all the godowns further up are the property of Chinese; and though the whole range is pretty much of a character as far as the buildings are concerned, yet the Chinese division is the more imposing on account of the bright colours which adorn the walls, and the plentiful display of Turkey red cloth, which at all seasons, but especially during their feasts, forms the drapery of their verandahs. At night the view of these houses is still more interesting, all the verandahs and windows being lit up with many coloured Chinese lanterns, the effect of which is doubled by the reflection of the placid water that flows past their doors.

On the eastern bank of the river for a considerable way up there are no houses, the land having been reserved for Government purposes, but the green grass and the foliage which surround the public offices erected close by, form a very pleasing contrast to the thickly-packed buildings opposite.

The river is alive with boats of all sorts, Chinamen with their shoe-boats, Malays with their sampans, or fast-boats, and Klings with their tongkangs. The first two craft are used for the conveyance of passengers and their luggage; the last, which are far the most numerous, are employed in bringing up and down the river the cargoes of ships in the harbour. The latter

contain from ten to fifteen coyans* each, and so numerous are they, that they generally lie three or four abreast along the entire western bank of the river, from its mouth to Elgin Bridge above. I have never counted them, but should say that very seldom indeed are there less than 500 of these small craft to be seen at one time in this first reach of the river. To each of these boats, taking one with another, there is a crew of not less than three men, which would give a floating population of at least 1,500 men; and the expression is by no means improperly applied, for most of these men live and sleep in their boats, and at night time the effect of this part of the river is considerably heightened by the innumerable lights which glimmer from under the attap or kajang awnings of this little fleet.

The crescent of buildings which I have described, and which is about a quarter of a mile long, is termed Boat Quay, from the fact of nearly the entire river frontage opposite them being taken up with the loading and discharging of cargo boats. Here it is, at present at least, that three-fourths of the entire shipping business of the island is effected, and from morning till night may be seen the landing of huge cases, casks and bales of British manufactures, as well as machinery and iron-work of all descriptions; and no sooner are the boats which bring these emptied, than they are filled up again with bales of gambier, bundles of rattans, tin, bags or cases of sago and tapioca, bags

* A coyan is about two tons English.

of pepper, and boxes of spices. It is, indeed, impossible to view these operations and not realize the fact that Singapore possesses a commerce and commercial importance altogether disproportioned to its size and population. Here alone there must be landed and shipped not less than 30,000*l.*-worth of goods per diem, throughout the entire year, and this is allowing some 5,000*l.* or 6,000*l.*-worth more to be landed and shipped from the private wharves possessed by a few godowns on the western side of the town.

It has frequently been a subject of complaint with the merchants of Singapore that great loss is sustained during the year by the damage occasioned to merchandise from the severe handling it receives in this process of lightering, and several plans have been proposed to remedy the evil. One was to build a series of wharves at the nearest point of New Harbour, where ships can lie close alongside, and connect these to the town by means of a tramway or railway. Another was to construct a pile-pier running right out from the busiest part of the town into deep water, to enable ships of all sizes to come alongside and load and discharge into trucks, which could afterwards be conveyed on tramways to the various godowns. The latter plan is one upon which Colonel Collyer, for some years chief engineer, spent a good deal of time, and which he reduced to shape. Either plan appears to me feasible, and likely to prove profitable to the capitalists who would undertake it, and valuable to the town. The first has not very many engineering obstacles, and

the works connected with it could be made permanent; but the cost would undoubtedly be very great. The second plan, on the other hand, requires a very limited outlay, and though a considerable sum would have to be yearly spent in renewing the piles, yet similar undertakings in other parts of the world have, I believe, generally proved more successful than costly permanent erections. The water of Singapore harbour is never so seriously disturbed as to interfere with even the largest vessels lying safely alongside such a pier, and from the soundings obtained along the site proposed, the bottom was found to consist of soft mud, so that ships might without danger ground at low water, should a pressure of business ever require them to do so.

Above Elgin Bridge the river continues of the uniform breadth of about 200 feet, and is navigable by small boats for about two miles, and, as it feeds all the mangrove swamps in the suburbs of the town, many houses entirely removed from the course of the river itself have, at high water, the advantage of water communication with the sea, and timber and building materials are in this way often conveyed well out into the country where they are required for use. It is, however, a very insignificant traffic that takes place above this bridge.

The whole of the native part of the town, the chief business division of which lies behind Commercial Square, and the river frontage I have described, are very much alike in appearance. The buildings are closely packed together and of a uniform height and

character. The style is a sort of compromise between English and Chinese. The walls are of brick, plastered over, and the roofs are covered with tiles. The windows are of lattice woodwork—there being no glazing in this part of the world. Under the windows of many houses occupied by Chinese are very chaste designs of flowers or birds in porcelain. The ridges of the roofs, too, and the eaves, are frequently similarly ornamented, and it is no unusual thing to see a perfect little garden of flowers and vegetables in boxes and pots exposed on the tops of the houses. Underneath run, for the entire length of the streets, the enclosed verandahs of which I spoke before, and in a quiet observant walk through these a very great deal may be learned concerning the peculiar manners and customs of the trading inhabitants. The principal street for native shops leads from Commercial Square towards the country. For a quarter of a mile after leaving the square, but before crossing the river, this is a great thoroughfare. Being narrow, it is nearly always crowded, and the buildings fronting it are occupied entirely by Chinese and Klings.

The necessities of the European community have, doubtless, created many trades before unknown to these peoples; but still their shops are sufficiently characteristic of their nationalities, and no one could for a moment imagine, while viewing them, that he was in a European town. The Kling shopkeepers are principally sellers of European wares of the cheapest and most indifferent description, and exposed in the most extraordinarily confused manner; but there are

a few who confine themselves to the sale of seeds and spices, arranged in earthenware bowls, piled up pyramid-shape in their windows.

The Chinese, who are in the proportion of ten to one of the trading population, embrace a much wider field of trade. These are warehousemen, tailors, carpenters, coopers, blacksmiths, tinsmiths, gunsmiths, grocers, butchers, opium vendors, and barbers. The warehousemen seem to take things most coolly, and may be seen naked to the waist, lounging about upon mats, and perched upon high bamboo stools. Their goods are exposed to view, but they neither by look nor gesture invite the passer-by to purchase. The tailors are a hard-working and assiduous class; in one shop there are often as many as forty men seated on benches placed round three or four long tables. They work with English needles and materials, but use them in a different way—sewing, as it were, from them. They stitch carefully and at the same time rapidly. Many of these tailor shops are open till midnight, but have relays of fresh workmen. The night workmen have each a very primitive and very effective sort of lantern, which I think might be imitated with good effect at home. A small light only is used, but the rays are completely reflected down upon the table and cannot reach the worker's eyes—indeed the room looks half in darkness, while the work on which each man is engaged is strongly illuminated. The method of sewing from the person may render the use of this sort of lights more practicable, but yet I think it could be adjusted to English use.

The carpenters' and coopers' shops present very much the appearance of similar establishments at home, except as regards the workmen and their tools. The Chinese carpenters are very clever, and will closely imitate any piece of furniture given them as a pattern, but I do not think they can at all approach European workmen in fineness of finish. Blacksmiths here are also very much like those at home in their way of working, except that they have a different and original sort of bellows. It is in the form of a square, air-tight box, with a closely-fitting piston, which by an arrangement of leather valves forces a stream of air upon the fire both as it is drawn out and pushed in. Tinsmiths and gunsmiths are much of the same genus. One of the chief occupations of the former of these, in the part of the town of which I speak, is in making small flasks into which the gunpowder that arrives here in kegs is refilled. In this sort of package it finds, I believe, a much more ready sale amongst the Klings and native buyers. A rather singular occupation in which I have seen the Chinese gunsmiths engaged, was the furnishing of some thousands of percussion-cap muskets with the old-fashioned flint-locks—the reason of this somewhat extraordinary change being, that the islanders of the archipelago, to whom the muskets were to be furnished, could always find a piece of flint to use in their guns, but might be years before they could buy a box of percussion-caps.

The trades of grocers and butchers appear to be combined generally at the same shop, as rice, tea or coffee, flesh, fish, and fowl,—the two latter dead or

alive, fresh or preserved—can be obtained. Pork is the chief, if not the only, butcher's meat consumed by the Chinese, and they make use of it very sparingly, judging by the small pieces into which it is cut up and exposed for sale. I have often seen Chinamen contentedly returning to their houses in the suburbs after a good day's barter in town, carrying on a piece of string about a quarter of a pound of pork and three or four small fish like sardines, out of which they would doubtless manage to make a good supper and breakfast. One thing must be remarked to the credit of the Chinese in their shopkeeping, viz., the extreme cleanliness they observe; but for this it would scarcely be possible to combine successfully together, as they do, the trades of butcher, fishmonger, and grocer.

The opium shops present no particular appearance from the street, as the windows and doors are usually screened off. Inside there is very little remarkable either: a few benches with mats spread upon them, and some few trays, containing little lamps and the ordinary smoking paraphernalia, resting on tables close by. Whatever may be the headaches or the frightful depressions suffered from the practice of opium-smoking, none of them are visible here: a quiet lethargy, unlike that of intoxication, seems to mark the features of the few men to be seen in these houses. The process of smoking is somewhat different from what might be conjectured by those who have not seen it. The pipe is made of a short piece of Malacca cane, about three-quarters of an inch in thickness, and

perhaps two feet long; towards the end, projecting from the stalk, a metallic (often silver) knob—in size and shape like the handle of a room-door—is fixed, and through the centre of this knob a small hole is pierced, communicating through the cane to the mouth of the pipe. The smoker lies on his side on a mat, his head pillowed up to the necessary elevation, with a tray before him containing a small lamp, some silver prongs, and a little cup of liquid opium of the consistency and very much of the appearance of molasses. With one hand he holds the pipe to his mouth in such a position that the knob is near to the flame of the lamp; with the other hand he takes a silver prong, and dips the point into the opium, twirling it round till a piece the size of a pea is accumulated; this he then places close to the orifice of the pipe on the metallic knob, and approaches both to the flame of the lamp. As soon as the opium commences to burn, he inhales heavily, rather breathing it in than smoking it. While inhaling he continues to hold the pipe to the flame, and uses the silver prong to keep the orifice from clogging. A good many fresh supplies of opium are applied during an ordinary smoke. The smell of the smoke while fresh is not unpleasant, but when stale it is much worse than that of tobacco.

The Chinese barbers' shops are numerous throughout the town; and, singularly enough, they are marked by variegated poles very much resembling those used by the same trade at home, only that they are square and not round. They are generally entirely open to the street, and the operations are gone through in the

most public manner possible. Hair-cutting is never part of these operations, for all the hair that Chinamen allow to grow on their heads is gathered up into a tail behind, which is never cut, its length and luxuriance being its chief recommendation. The tail, however, is opened out, combed, and replaited, and the head all around, as well as the face, is shaved. While this is being done, the customers sit poised upon stools, in view of all passers-by, gazing forward with the same blank stolidity that pervades the faces of those under operation in any barber's shop at home.

There is probably no city in the world with such a motley crowd of itinerant vendors of wares, fruits, cakes, vegetables, &c. There are Malays, generally with fruit; Chinamen with a mixture of all sorts, and Klings with cakes and different kinds of nuts. Malays and Chinamen always use the shoulder-stick, having equally-balanced loads suspended at either end; the Klings, on the contrary, carry their wares on the head on trays. The travelling cook-shops of the Chinese are probably the most extraordinary of the things that are carried about in this way. They are suspended on one of the common shoulder-sticks, and consist of a box on one side and a basket on the other; the former containing a fire and small copper cauldron for soup; the latter loaded with rice, vermicelli, cakes, jellies, and condiments; and though I have never tasted any of their dishes, I have been assured that those they serve up at a moment's notice are most savoury, and that their sweets are delicious. Three cents will purchase a substantial

meal of three or four dishes from these itinerant restaurateurs.

Another remarkable feature of the streets, and one which carries the mind away back to a very early period in the history of our own country, is made up of the letter-writers or penny-a-liners, who take up their stalls at various parts of the town. They are always to be seen in the mornings seated composedly at their desks in the verandahs or out in the streets. On their desks or tables are piled several quires of Chinese straw paper, and a small porcelain tablet contains their ink and writing-brushes; pens of any kind are unknown to them. A large—perhaps the largest—section of the Chinese population can write for themselves, but all are equally endowed with this amiable feature, that they never forget or neglect the friends they have left behind them in China; and these letter-writers do a large business in making out for the illiterate section epistles which invariably contain the good wishes, and often convey the substantial money gifts, of those who dictate them. When not engaged in taking down the thoughts of others, these penmen generally employ themselves in copying out stock pamphlets, or, it may be, composing original prose or verse suited to the popular taste. But their productions cannot be very deep, for they seem to write away with great facility, even when not copying; and I have never witnessed them in anything like what we term the agonies of composition. As a rule, they are not more intellectual in appearance than their neighbours, though I have remarked one or two who clearly bore

the print of letters on their features. The feast times are the busiest seasons with them, when they make out large placards on red paper to adorn the door-posts and lintels of their customers.

In driving through the narrow streets of Singapore, it is at times difficult to avoid running over some of the crowd. The danger of such an accident is increased by the circumstance that Chinamen are ordinarily very deaf—owing, it is believed, to their so frequently having their ears cleaned out by rough steel instruments—and are also very indifferent. If you nearly run over a Chinaman, and he escapes but by a hair's-breadth, the only way he indicates an appreciation of the danger he has escaped is by turning round to you with a good-natured, well-pleased grin on his face. Some of them will even pass on without raising their heads, as if no danger had been incurred. I shall not soon forget one occasion on which I had the misfortune to run over a Chinaman. It was in a four-wheeled Yankee buggy; the horse had taken fright and started off into a canter, and on turning a corner came right up against a Chinaman who was leisurely walking in the centre of the road. The shaft caught him about the shoulder and down he went; all I felt being the bump, bump of the two pair of wheels passing over his body. In a few moments the horse was pulled up, and on approaching the man I saw him still on the ground, but apparently busily engaged about something. When I got up to him I found that the wheels had passed over his waist, cutting his belt in two, attached to which had been a purse containing a

handful of copper cents, which were now scattered on the ground, and the man was quietly gathering them up, never having risen since he was run over. He had two long skin wounds across his waist, but they appeared to give him no anxiety whatever compared with the safety of his money.

There are three permanent bridges across the river. One is the iron girder bridge before alluded to, and which, though connecting two of the busiest parts of the town, and sustaining a constant stream of traffic, is barely seventeen feet wide. The bridge was sent out from home, and no doubt the natives gather from it a somewhat narrowed view either of English traffic or English good sense. The other two bridges are wooden, both higher up the river. One of these is the renewal of a very old structure, and the other has just recently been cut up for the first time. In addition to these, a temporary foot-passenger bridge has been thrown across nearer the mouth of the river, but it is an eyesore to the town, and the sooner it is taken down again the better, though some 3,000 dollars were spent upon it.

The portion of the town which stands on the western side of the river covers probably an area of 128 acres; but though it is the busiest it is by no means the largest. On the eastern side are the various campongs, or districts, bordering one on the other, and which together occupy an area of 333 acres. These campongs are chiefly composed of dwelling-houses used by the natives, of similar construction to those already described, and they scarcely

merit any particular notice. There is a Campong Bencoolen, Campong Rochore, Campong Kapor, a Campong Java, a Campong Bugis, and Campong Glam,—the first part of the island sold, and where the European merchants originally had their residences, but which has now chiefly passed into the occupation of the natives. Though the Campongs Java, Bugis, &c., were probably first occupied by the races whose name they bear, no such distinction appears now to exist.

The eastern division of the town is interesting rather for its fine European public buildings than for any peculiarity in the style of the native houses. The finest of these buildings is the cathedral, called, as a compliment to the nationality of the majority of the European residents, St. Andrew's Church. It is a fine edifice, and, as I have said in the previous chapter, has occupied eight years in the construction. Its dimensions are: length from extremes, 225 feet; breadth across at the aisles, but independent of the broad carriage porticoes, 56 feet; height to the ridge of main roof, 75 feet; and the spire, which is 40 feet square at its base, is 220 feet in height. Its style is taken from Netley Abbey; the interior is very handsomely fitted. The residents subscribed and got out an organ which cost 600*l*. Three fine stained glass windows, costing a large sum of money, were also procured for the chancel; one is inscribed "to the memory of Sir Stamford Raffles, the illustrious founder of Singapore;" another to "Major-General Butterworth, who successfully governed these settle-

ments from 1843 to 1855;"* and the third is set up "to the honour and glory of God, and as a testimonial to John Crawfurd, Esq." But it is only by close observers that these inscriptions can be made out; the windows look very magnificent at a distance. Though the new cathedral was named after the Scotch saint, it has proved somewhat unfortunate for the popularity of the Presbyterian worship, many of the Scotch kirk-folks preferring the lofty arches of St. Andrew's to the humble square walls of their own chapel. There was such a great demand for seats and such competition for choice places that a public ballot was held for their disposal. It would be unfair, however, to argue any great godliness from this eagerness to obtain places, for though all the forward seats are now secured, it would be impossible to point to any Sunday when they have been really well filled.

The court-house and the town-hall stand close together on the east bank of the river. The former is thirty-five years old, but not a bit the worse for its age. It is a large graceful building with a fine display of pillars and porticoes, and by its size and elegance shows that as far back as the date of its foundation the old Company had foreshadowed the greatness to which Singapore would arise. It is now used as the treasury, the land-office, and the resident councillor's office; only a small outer building connected with it is

* Unfortunately, the artist who executed these fine windows has made this last date 45, instead of 55; by which it would appear that Colonel Butterworth had administered the government for only two years instead of twelve; but I give it in the text as it ought to be. I have, however, left the next epitaph exactly as it reads in the church.

appropriated to the use of the Court of Judicature, and which is scarcely large enough to afford accommodation to its thirteen licensed practitioners.

The town-hall is of modern construction, having been commenced about four years since by public subscription of the merchants. It was to cost just 20,000 dollars, though when finished it was found that no less than 50,000 dollars had been spent upon it; but it is a pretty building, and the money has not been grudged. It is of a mixed style of architecture. The lower hall has been neatly fitted up as a theatre by the Amateur Corps Dramatique, and the upper hall is used for public meetings and other public purposes.

Close to both these buildings are some fine old trees which throw a grateful shade all around, and from this the esplanade extends in a broad belt of beautiful turf along the beach as far as the institution buildings. The esplanade contains about nine acres, and it is wonderful how green the grass keeps throughout the year. The institution buildings were erected by Sir Stamford Raffles, and are consequently older than any other public building in the place. The purpose of the institution is a most worthy one. It was endowed by the Company for educational purposes, and a yearly sum is still granted for its maintenance.

To the line of buildings fronting the beach on this side of the river, extending from the church for a quarter of a mile eastward, more perhaps than to any other feature, Singapore owes its pretty appearance, viewed from the harbour. These, as I have said before, though the finest of them are hotels now, were

once the residences of the early merchants, and are large and of elegant construction; they each cover a considerable space of ground and have compounds or gardens around. It is a very fine sight from the beach to see these houses lit up at night, the brilliant argand lamps in use shedding a flood of light round the lofty white pillars and colonnades of the upper stories, while the lower parts of the buildings are hid by the shrubbery of the gardens in front. Every door and window is thrown open to admit the cool night breeze, and gathered round their tables, or lolling about in their easy chairs, may be seen the wearied travellers or residents, with the strange and often grotesque figures of their native servants flitting about with refreshments. Indeed, on a fine starry night, standing there, on the sea-wall of the bay, with the stillness around only broken by the gentle ripple of the wavelets at one's feet, it is not difficult while gazing on the houses, the lights, the figures, and the heavy-leafed shrubbery in front, to imagine oneself amid the garden palaces of the Arabian Nights.

CHAPTER IV.

INLAND SCENERY: JUNGLE—TIGERS.

Residences—Indian Bungalows—Roads—Dhobies—Fireflies—Nutmeg Plantations — Gambier Plantations — The Jungle — Parasites—Rattans — Pitcher Plants — Jungle Roads — Selita Bungalows—Monkeys — Deer — Hogs — Tigers — Yearly Victims—Concealment by the Chinese Planters—Small Number of Tigers—Few killed—First Tigers seen in Singapore—Swim across from Mainland—How they attack Man — Instant Death — An Escape — Tigers cowardly—Malay Adventure—Singular Attack in Province Wellesley—How they mangle their Victims—Means adopted for their Extermination—Their Habits—Tiger Pits—Late Incident at a Pit —The Reduction of Tigers a Consideration for future Government.

THE inland scenery of Singapore is exceedingly lovely, whether we view that portion of it which has been adopted for European residences, the districts which have been cleared for cultivation further in the interior, or that part, still by many times the largest, which has been left in its primeval forest and jungle. The town extends in very few points more than a mile from the beach, and, being remarkably compact, the country may be said to come right up to its walls. There are none of those intermediate, half-formed streets, with straggling houses here and there, separated by blank, barren, open spaces, which so often disfigure the outskirts of a town. Where the town ends, the country commences; indeed, it would be difficult for a

piece of ground to remain long desert, for nature would soon crowd it with her works, if man did not with his.

The greatest number of European residences are about two miles out, but some are twice that distance. Those nearer town, where ground is more valuable, are built tolerably close together, with perhaps one or two acres to each; those at a greater distance are more apart, generally crowning the summits of the innumerable little hills, which are such a geological peculiarity of Singapore, and surrounded by ten or fifteen acres of ground, either covered with patches of jungle, or planted with nutmeg and fruit trees. It is difficult to account very satisfactorily for the hillocky appearance which pervades the entire island, except along its south-eastern coast. In the case of the large hills, it is clearly to be attributed to some internal upheaving action, for in these the broken strata can be distinctly traced. Most of the smaller hills, however, show no indication of any stratum whatever, consisting entirely of an accumulation of large boulders of sandstone, rounded as if by the action of water, and cemented together with red laterite—a hard gravel, believed to be the decomposition of granite. It appears, too, from the discovery of shells and other evidences, that the sea covered at one time by far the greater part of the island.

However, let their origin be what it may, these little round hills or *bukits*, as they are termed by the Malays, give a very singular and very pleasing appearance to the island. They average about 100 to 200

feet in height. Bukit Timah, which is the highest point of the island, and almost in its centre, has an elevation of 530 feet. All those within a radius of four miles from town are built upon, and generally bear the names of their first European proprietors. The residences are built very similar to one another, and generally of brick. Bungalows, a term often applied to any style of dwelling-house in the East, are, properly speaking, only of one story, elevated some five or six feet from the ground upon arched masonry. A moderate-sized building of this description might be 90 feet long, 60 or 70 deep, usually a parallelogram in form, but sometimes varied in shape to suit the arrangement of the rooms inside. The walls from the flooring to the roof are seldom less than fifteen feet high, which gives a lofty ceiling to the apartments, and the roof is covered with tiles. The most striking feature of these buildings, however, is the broad verandah which runs right round the house about eight or ten feet in width, resting on the plinths of the pillars that, extending upwards in round columns with neatly moulded capitals, support the continuation of the roof which projects some four feet beyond the pillars, forming deep overhanging eaves. On to the verandah, which is surrounded by a neat railing, all the doors of the bungalow open, and as these also serve the purpose of windows, they are pretty numerous; they are in two halves, opening down the centre like cottage doors at home, with the lower panels plain and the two upper ones fitted with venetians to open or close at pleasure. From the

centre of the building in front a portico projects some twenty-five or thirty feet, and generally about twenty-five broad, covering the carriage way and a broad flight of stone steps leading from the ground to the verandah. The pillars and walls are chenammed to a snowy whiteness, the doors are painted a light green, the tiled roof in time becomes a dark brown, and the whole forms a very pleasing picture, especially in its contrast with the foliage around.

Those residences which are not bungalows have no peculiar local denomination. They are two stories high, and very similar in construction to the others.

The interiors of all the houses are lofty, for in addition to the side walls being seldom less than fifteen feet high, the ceilings of the principal rooms are alcoved. There are numerous columns and arches inside as well as outside, and the Chinese builders make very neat cornices to the doorways and ceilings. The rooms are never papered, but the entire plaster-work—ceilings, walls, and pillars—is kept beautifully white with chenam. The floors are matted, not carpeted, and the apartments not overcrowded with furniture. The wooden doors leading from room to room are usually thrown open, there being silk screens on hinges attached to each doorway, which, while they maintain a sufficient privacy, admit of a free ventilation throughout the house. From the ceilings are suspended a very liberal supply of hanging argand lamps, which, when lit up, give a brilliant effect to the rooms. Punkahs are used in the dining-rooms, but not in the sleeping apartments, as is the case in India.

The kitchen, stables, and servants' rooms are always built at a good distance from the house, and connected with it by a covered passage. There is little remarkable about these, except perhaps in the internal arrangements of the kitchens, which, though for the use of Europeans, are thoroughly oriental in their character. There is no fireplace, but in the centre of the room a table of solid brickwork is built with slabs of stone or brick tiles laid on the top; at one end of this a small circular chamber is built to serve as an oven; a strong fire is placed inside, and when the brickwork is thoroughly heated, the fire is raked out, and whatever dish is required to be baked placed inside and the aperture closed up, the heat given out from the bricks being sufficient to cook it in a short time. The rest of the table is divided into a series of little fireplaces, over which proceed the ordinary processes of cooking. Wood or charcoal only is used as fuel.

The grounds around the European residences are for the most part tastefully kept. A couple of gardeners cost eight or nine dollars a month, and to such good effect can nature be cultivated that the expenditure is seldom begrudged. The beauty of the hedges, which are either of bamboo or of wild heliotrope, and the greenness of the grass, are features not often seen in a tropical climate, but which are particularly noteworthy about Singapore. The grass is a very coarse, short, thick sort, and so vigorous is it of growth that a considerable body of men are maintained throughout the year at the public expense to keep the roads clear

of it. Few of the private gardens as yet yield much fruit, owing to the fact of the greater part of the grounds around Singapore not many years ago having been laid out with nutmegs, a crop which made magnificent returns for many years, and then suddenly gave way from some unknown disease or blight. Fruit trees, however, are now growing up in their place.

The roads leading from one to another of these residences, and from them to the town, are very pleasant walks or drives, according as it may be morning or evening. Of those leading into and out of town, Orchard Road and River Valley Road are the two chief. The former is the approach to the greater number of houses, and has the most traffic; it is, besides, probably the prettier of the two. Shortly after leaving town it follows the windings of a small stream of anything but pellucid water, in which the dhobies, or washermen, are busy from morning till night, on Sabbaths and on week-days, in shower and in sunshine, beating away at the soiled linen of the clothed section of the population. The process is common in India, but certainly quite strange to Europe. The men, generally strong, stalwart Klings or Bengalese, naked to a strip of cloth round the loins, stand up to their knees in the bed of the stream with a flat slab of stone in front of them. They seize the pieces of clothing one by one—if it is a shirt by the tail, if a pair of pants by the legs—dip them into the stream, swing them over their heads, and bring them down with their whole force on the stone slab. This operation is continued with each piece till it is thoroughly cleaned. A

great deal of damage is, of course, done to the clothes by this process; it is especially fatal to buttons; but on the other hand, it undoubtedly secures a matchless whiteness.

Beyond these dhobie lines, Orchard Road runs for about a mile in a straight line through a valley lying between a series of little hills, from the summits of which the residences I have described look down; but it is only at intervals that these can be seen. The road on either side is lined by tall bamboo hedges with thick shrubbery behind, and broken only here and there by the white portals at the entrances of the private avenues leading from it, or occasionally by a native hut or fruit shop. Many years ago, too, augsana, wild almond, jambu, and weringan trees were planted along both sides at equal distances, and these have now grown up to their full proportions, closing overhead, forming a complete shade to the road, and giving the appearance of a very beautiful vista extending along its entire length.

The smaller roads which branch off from this, as, indeed, all the others throughout the district, are characterized by the fresh green appearance of the hedges and the richness of the underwood behind them, with here and there some fine old tree stretching its branches right across. There cannot be said to be many wild flowers about, but the blossoms of the trees more than make up for the deficiency, as, in addition to their pretty appearance, they usually give out very sweet perfumes. Some of the wild creepers, however, that overgrow without apparently

injuring the roadside trees, bear clusters of large convolvulus flowers of almost every hue; others, again, bear little bunches of peculiar thick flesh-coloured blossoms resembling wax-work. There are also many orchids, which, though common here and of no value, would be much prized at home.

An improvement that still remains to be carried out on some of the roads leading to town is that of hedging off the mangrove swamps through which they here and there pass. These swamps, as I have remarked when describing the Singapore river, are filled and discharged by the rise and fall of the tide. At high water they look pretty enough, for the mangroves are covered over to above their roots, and display only their thick green bushy tops. At low-water, on the other hand, the muddy bottom is exposed and glistens half wet in the sun, with the dull, dirty roots of the mangroves standing naked out of the mud like the ribs of an inverted umbrella. Passing these swamps on a sultry night, especially at low water, and when there is no moon, the sight is a very peculiar one, certainly never to be met with in temperate climates. The bushes literally swarm with fireflies, which flash out their intermittent light almost contemporaneously; the effect being that for an instant the exact outline of all the bushes stands prominently forward, as if lit up with electric sparks, and next moment all is jetty dark—darker from the momentary illumination that preceded. These flashes succeed one another every three or four seconds for about ten minutes, when an interval of similar duration takes place; as if to

allow the insects to regain their electric or phosphoric vigour. The Malays here and in many parts of the Archipelago have jewels made for night wear, set, not with pearls or stones, but with little round cages about the size of a pea, in each of which a firefly is imprisoned; the little insect, excited by the narrowness of its cage, gives out even more brilliant and more frequent flashes than when at large. The jewel could have no more pretty setting; it is also a very cheap and a very harmless one, as the firefly is set free before the night is over. I have read somewhere that these insects are impaled on little golden needles, as in the agonies of death they emit a more brilliant lustre. This must be a mistake, however, for I have found that the strength of the flashes they give out is in proportion to their vitality, and if this is in any way impaired, as by the loss of a leg or a wing, the bright flash becomes dull and often extinct. It is difficult to believe that the light of these insects is phosphorescent; it certainly has much more the appearance of electricity, for it is a sharp bright spark and not a dull lustre, and if not under the control of the animal is at least affected by its passions. If they are irritated, as by confinement, or if a branch of a bush on which they are clustered be roughly shaken, they will flash out much more rapidly and brilliantly than when enjoying themselves undisturbed.

About three miles out the residences are thinly scattered, and only one or two are to be found beyond the four-mile radius. But the jungle does not immediately commence where the residences end. So great

at one time was the mania for nutmeg plantations, and so likely did it seem that they would realize large fortunes to their owners, that many hundreds of acres were purchased at a distance of four or five miles from town, the jungle cut down, the land cleared, and planted with nutmegs procured at great expense from the Moluccas. Most of these plantations are now abandoned, the trees being dead or dying, and it is a somewhat melancholy sight to see acre upon acre of these skeleton trees, upon which many enterprising men have lost fortunes, with their bark bleached white, and their branches overgrown by tangled creepers.

But between these and the pepper and gambier plantations a belt of jungle intervenes, more or less broad. Properly speaking, there is no particular locality for the growth of pepper and gambier, the plantations being scattered all over the island. Chinamen, who are in all cases the planters, select the most retired spots they can find in the midst of the jungle, generally one or two miles away from the nearest road, and commence clearing all around till they have perhaps fifty acres free of jungle. Gambier requires little cultivation, and for its growth the roots of the old trees are never removed. Pepper on the other hand requires the utmost attention, and constant tilling and manuring of the soil. Wherever there is a gambier plantation, pepper is sure also to be found growing in a small corner of a few acres near the homestead. It is a very pretty plant, and is reared much as grapes are at home.

Doubtless it is the desire to obtain land without

purchase which drives the Chinamen so far into the jungle; but what induces them to keep so far apart from one another, with, in many cases, miles of jungle intervening, I am at a loss to understand. Perhaps it is their desire that the coolies they have for labourers, and whom they obtain by a species of purchase from the trading junks, should have no means of comparing their condition, or the term of their servitude, with those of the men engaged by other planters. Or the reason may be, that the wall of jungle which boxes in each plantation, and shades off more than an hour of the morning and evening sun, has a beneficial influence on the growth of the plants; the proximity of a large tract of jungle, too, is known to conduce to a more equable temperature.* However this may be, the circumstance, as will presently appear, has much to do with the fearful mortality yearly suffered in the island from tigers.

It is difficult to convey any adequate idea of the jungle to those accustomed to the forests of the temperate zones. In the back lands of Singapore it consists, in the first place, of a forest of gigantic trees, comprising among others the daroo, tampenis, and bintaugor,† standing close together, like the stalks in

* In the preparation of gambier, as will be learned from my remarks regarding that product, a large amount of firewood is consumed, and this would render the proximity of a forest desirable; but it certainly is no reason why whole miles of jungle should lie between the various plantations.

† I use the Malay names throughout, as I am unable to give the botanical ones. In the Appendix, however, will be found a table of all the forest trees of the peninsula, with their peculiarities, and the uses to which they are adapted, first published by Colonel Low, who had civil charge of Province Wellesley.

a wheat-field, their trunks varying in diameter from two to six feet. They are smooth and branchless for four-fifths of their height, and then spread out in a small but compact foliage of dark green leaves. The tops of these giants join together and form a dark shade, under which grow up trees of another tribe, short in stature, but more umbrageous in their development. Among them are the wild fruit-trees, the mangusteen, the durian, the mangoe, the jack-fruit, and the jambu. Beneath these again comes a growth never seen beyond the limits of the tropics; strange hybrids between ferns, and palms, and plants, very few of which have even got Malay names.

But it is not so much the way the trees are crowded one upon another that gives the character to the jungle as the extraordinary manner in which the whole mass is literally woven together by a network of creepers and parasites. Chief among the former is the rattan,* pieces of which I have seen cut out from the jungle nearly an inch in diameter, and over 300 feet long; the ordinary rattans, though much thinner, are equally long. Among the parasites I have seen some as thick as a man's body twining spirally round the trunks of the larger trees, beginning at the bottom and after seven or eight turns reaching to the top, from which they not unfrequently drop down again in straight columns of uniform girth to the ground, where they become attached, and again start forth on a fresh mission.

Another peculiar and at the same time beautiful

* The rattan is a species of palm.

feature of these jungles consists of the numerous orchidaceous plants that drop from the elbows of the larger trees, or, it may be, fix themselves on some point of the creeper network that grows around them. Conspicuous, too, are the varieties of pitcher-plants, to be found probably in greater luxuriance in the jungles of Singapore than in any other part of the world. These plants have been so frequently described that, though seen by but few, they are nevertheless well known to most people now-a-days, and a description of them here is therefore unnecessary. It is extraordinary, however, where these singular plants place themselves. Some can be seen on the very pinnacles of the highest trees, while others, as if destined for man, cluster within an easy distance of the ground. They always contain a good supply of pure, wholesome water, perhaps about a quarter of a pint to each cup. It is said that the monkeys which crowd the jungle rely upon them entirely for their supply of water; whether this be so or not, they are always called monkey-cups by the Malays.

Besides these obstructions, which of themselves nearly render the jungle impenetrable, there are the fallen trees of bygone ages piled one on top of the other or lying side by side, giving, in their decay, birth to a hundred different forms of vegetation. With respect to vegetable life in Singapore, I have noticed that the process of decay by no means keeps pace with the rapidity of reproduction. While beside you there still lie in good sound, solid consistency the trunks that must have fallen half a century ago, there is

flourishing above your head the stalwart growth of but twenty years. It has been remarked, too, that the vegetable mould of the jungle is very shallow, seldom being over a foot in depth, and geologists have concluded from this circumstance, I think erroneously, that, geologically speaking, only a very short time has passed since the surface of the island underwent its last great change.

There are but few who have had an opportunity of viewing the wild luxuriance of this growth to the best advantage, that is, in the thick of it; but there are many of the roads stretching either across or around the island, which at a distance of some nine or ten miles from town give a magnificent glimpse of the primeval jungle through which they have been cut. One of these glimpses can be obtained near the termination of the road to Changhi, which runs for about fourteen miles in a north-easterly direction across the island to a beautiful little sandy bay on the eastern entrance to the old strait where two bungalows have been built, one by the merchants and the other by Government, which are resorted to for a fortnight or a month at a time for a change of air and the benefit of sea-bathing. But it is on the road to the Government bungalow at Selita that the wildest jungle scenery is passed. This bungalow is about nine miles from town in a direct line across the centre of the island, and the road leading to it passes for some distance through the thickest of the old forest. At one point, about a mile from the bungalow, where the road winds through an elevated valley formed by two

parallel ranges of hills, the scenery is particularly imposing. Even in the glare of noonday it is little more than a subdued twilight that reaches the traveller as he passes along. The tall forest trees start up from the very edge of the road, as straight and regular as the pillars of a colonnade, their branches often meeting at a height of 130 feet overhead, and what sunlight struggles into the road is admitted through the leafy tops of these, for the winding nature of the road shows no outlet in front or to the rear; all around is jungle, with here and there a cavernous rent, showing the almost pitchy darkness it encloses.

The bungalow at Selita is, I think, as worthy of a visit as any place around Singapore. It is a simple building in itself, constructed of wood, and covered with attaps, the leaves of a species of palm; but it is beautifully situated, and stands fronting about a square mile of cleared ground dotted over with the huts of Malay and Chinese gardeners and planters. There is also a small native village close by, and a police tannah, or station, but these are hidden from the bungalow by a row of weringan-trees, planted many years ago, and which have now grown up to a good height. About fifty yards behind stands the dark impenetrable jungle,* from out of which gushes a clear, sparkling brook of icy cold water that runs past

* On visiting Selita since the above was written, I was sorry to find that the convicts there had levelled some of the finest trees on the borders of this stream; and also that the jungle along some of the wildest parts of the road leading from town had been set fire to—acts of vandalism, prompted, I believe, by the suspected vicinity of tigers, but perfectly useless and unavailing.

the foot of the declivity at the back of the bungalow. A cover of attaps has been built over this part of the stream, and there are steps leading down from the bank to the water's edge. The bottom of the stream is strewn over with sand and pebbles, and a very delightful bathing place thus secured. I have called the water of this streamlet icy cold; it is so, of course, only comparatively speaking, though its temperature must be at least ten degrees below that of water ordinarily exposed to the atmosphere; and this is scarcely to be wondered at, as the stream here sees the light for the first time, having hitherto meandered through the dull shade of the jungle.

These Government bungalows here and throughout the other stations are a relic of the old East India Company which should not be swept away, but maintained even at some cost. They were built for the accommodation of the Company's servants while travelling through the country, but are freely placed at the disposal of any one who makes application for their use. The accommodation thus afforded to men of an inquiring and perhaps scientific turn of mind, desirous to visit the interior of the various settlements, cannot fail to be amply repaid to Government by the further development of the resources of the soil.

The denizens of the jungle here are not nearly so varied in species as those on the mainland of the peninsula. First, and probably greatest in number, come the monkeys; of these there are several species, but all of diminutive size; they are neatly formed, gentle, and easily tamed. Formerly they used to be a

favourite dish with the Malays, but of late it has been found more profitable to capture them alive and dispose of them to the residents in town or on board the ships in the harbour. They are very numerous in some parts of the jungle, and seem to go together in tribes. At morning and evening they show themselves oftenest, jumping about from branch to branch of the tall forest trees, and chattering loudly. They will often venture tolerably close to the traveller, and thrusting out their little faces from between the leaves of the lower jungle, give a series of their peculiar grimaces with raised eyebrow and puckered mouth, and then dart back into the thicket. I have seen a flock of them follow a party of pedestrians for more than a mile along some of the jungle paths, grinning, jumping, and chattering all the way, not ill-naturedly, but apparently in frolic. Down at Selita they were very plentiful at one time. The convicts in charge of the bungalow there had laid out a small patch of ground with maize or Indian corn, surrounded by a thick bamboo jaggar hedge, and this being just on the confines of the jungle was a great attraction to them. They used to come in flocks of forty or fifty, and while the bulk were in the enclosure devouring the maize, four sentinels were placed in position, one at each corner of the hedge, and from whichever side danger was seen to approach the flock invariably scampered off in that opposite to it. The very young do not attempt to run about on these occasions by themselves, but cling on to the bodies of the full-grown animals—not always those of their parents—and so are carried

about from place to place. The grown-up monkeys scarcely seem to like being burdened with the youngsters, and more than once I have seen them straddling off thus encumbered, evidently not in best humour, thrusting and jerking in anything but a tender manner at the throats of the young ones in their endeavour to get free; but they seldom succeed in getting rid of their burthen, and when convinced of the uselessness of their efforts, carry them resignedly.

The wild hogs, which crowd all the swampy parts of the jungle, are precisely the same animal as is to be seen all over the world, but are usually black, and much smaller and more wiry than the common pig of Europe. There are two kinds of deer on the island, the ordinary elk and the moose deer; both are found in considerable numbers, and supply the natives with food. Alligators and boa-constrictors are likewise frequently to be met with; the latter are harmless to man, but destructive to poultry, and are often discovered near the henroosts of houses close to the jungle, either unable or indisposed to move after having gorged four or five fowls. Otters have also been captured in the creeks and rivers.

But the most remarkable animal of all, the one for which the jungles of Singapore possess a melancholy yet a world-wide reputation, is the tiger. There is a statement by which it is not unusual to convey to the minds of people at home an idea of the extent to which the island is infested by these monsters; it is, that on the average one man per diem falls a victim to

them. No doubt, this is in most cases received very much as travellers' tales were as a rule received in olden times; for it must immediately occur to the listener that Singapore is an island of but limited dimensions, containing an area of only 200 square miles, and that it is crowded with a population which if spread out would give 500 men to each square mile; but the statement is no exaggeration. I am fully convinced that 365 men per annum have their lives dashed out by the crushing stroke of the tiger's paw.

In the first place, there are the indisputable proofs of at least forty cases in the year recovered in the mangled corses of the victims. Dating a year back from the period at which I now write, there have been recovered no less than forty-one bodies in all conditions of hideous dismemberment, leaving no earthly doubt as to the manner in which the poor fellows met their deaths. In the same period I find that eighty-five additional cases have been reported to the police, in which the bodies could not be found. This would give only a little over a third of the number I have set down; but the cases substantiated can never, under the peculiar circumstances, be expected to reach a larger proportion than this of the deaths that actually take place from tigers.

It must be borne in mind that the victims are almost invariably Chinamen, and that the distance from town of the localities where these deaths take place is seldom less than nine miles, and oftener fourteen. For the neighbours of a man who had been carried away by a tiger to come into the nearest police

station would of itself necessitate the loss of a day's labour, and this loss would probably be extended to two or three days before the body of the victim was recovered and laid in the grave. Now Chinamen, though of a kindly disposition to their own countrymen—at least to those of the same clan or hoey—and willing to aid and assist one another to the extent of their power, are nevertheless strongly utilitarian, and reckon one living man more worth looking after than a thousand dead ones. They know by sad experience that a tiger having once seized his prey never leaves it till life is extinct, and that therefore all the time and money they may spend, if not in the search of the body, at least in reporting the matter to the police, is a needless waste for which they are not called upon either in aid of the living or respect of the dead. It is asserted, besides, that Chinamen have a superstitious aversion to expose the dead bodies of their friends to people not of their own nationality and religion. It may very reasonably be believed, therefore, that even where there is no interested motives for concealment, many and many a poor Chinaman is carried away by a tiger, and his remains either left unsought for in the jungle, or, if sought for and found, quietly interred near the spot where he suffered.

But it is beyond all doubt that interested motives also combine to still further prevent our obtaining a knowledge of the true measure of mortality in the island caused by tigers. The men most exposed to danger are those who work on the gambier and pepper plantations close to the wall of jungle which sur-

rounds them. These are not independent labourers, but either the hired or half-hired and half-purchased servants of the planter, who is forced from time to time into the labour market to replace the men whose agreements or whose terms of servitude are up. It is his interest to obtain these new hands as cheaply as possible, and, that he may do so, it is obviously desirable that his plantation should bear a reputation for safety as well as for good treatment. The notoriety of the island for tigers has spread far and wide, and one of the first inquiries made by new arrivals, as well as by those some time in the country, is as to the freedom of the locality from these monsters. If, therefore, a labourer on a plantation should be carried away by a tiger, it is only reasonable to imagine that the proprietor will do all in his power, first to ignore the fact, and if this be impossible, then to conceal it.

That a very extensive system of concealment is in this way practised was, not long ago, made tolerably apparent, not certainly by direct evidence, but in a manner perfectly convincing to those at all acquainted with the habits of the people. About a year ago, when the reported cases of deaths by tigers had reached a very low ebb, it was found on examination that nearly all the victims who had suffered were woodcutters—men who are under no masters, but wander about the jungles collecting firewood where they can get it best to sell in town. Scarcely a gambier or pepper planter appeared to have lost a man, yet in numbers the labourers on the plantations were as a hundred to one of the woodcutters, and they were

exposed to equal danger. Inquiries were made, and it was then well ascertained that concealment had been systematically pursued by nearly every one of the jungle planters, and that of the little graves which lay around each homestead nearly one-half were filled by the remains of such as had been killed by tigers.

But though there can be no gainsaying the fact that these deaths form a serious item in the year's mortality, the statement that a man falls each day a victim is apt to carry with it a very erroneous impression as to the number of tigers actually in the island. One not unnaturally jumps at once to the conclusion that Singapore must be thickly infested with them, whereas I believe that there are not now more than twenty couples, if so many; and probably at no time previously have they been so numerous; in proof of which I may mention that the Government has all along held out a reward of fifty dollars per head, and latterly, as the evil grew worse, extended it to one hundred dollars, with another fifty dollars from the merchants' fund, for any tiger captured or slain, and yet during the last four years there have only been ten cases where the reward was claimed, and this though a body of convicts are detailed for the purpose, and though, if the vicinity of a tiger in any locality was known for certain, there are not wanting those of the community who would gladly lie in watch every night in the week for the chance of a shot.

For many years after its settlement there were no tigers at all on the island—at least none were ever seen, and the Malays make no mention of their

appearance antecedent to that. It was not till 1835 that their presence first became known. Mr. Coleman, the surveyor of the station, accompanied by a body of convicts, was in that year laying out a new road through a low swampy part of the jungle about four miles from town. He was in the act of taking an observation through his theodolite when a crashing sound was heard among the bushes close by, and a huge tiger leaped right into the thick of the party, but fortunately alighted on the theodolite, which was overturned and broken, and, doubtless alarmed by the commotion occasioned, the animal immediately sprang into the jungle again and disappeared. The convicts to a man flew back to town, and the surveyor himself followed as quickly as he could, leaving the theodolite where it lay on the ground. It was a long time before the people in town could be brought to believe that a tiger really had been seen, and it was only on an appeal to the broken fragments of the theodolite—in the nature of that made by Macaulay in his lays to the molten image of Horatius—that unbelief was finally overcome. After this no work was done near the jungle but under arms, though it was some years before the next tiger showed itself.

If these animals were not indigenous to the island, it may be asked, how came they there? and this was a question which for a time puzzled conjecture. But it was before long determined, and I think satisfactorily, in a rather singular manner. The old strait that lies between the back of the island and the mainland of the peninsula is a favourite fishing ground in

certain seasons of the year, and is then thickly spread over on the Singapore side with stakes and nets. Early one morning a party of Malay fishermen, who had set their nets overnight, proceeded to examine what luck they had had, and were surprised to find secured in their meshes a large female tiger. The animal had in its struggles to get free thoroughly entangled itself, and was completely exhausted, and nearly drowned. There was still some life left, however, and the Malays thought it wiser to despatch it before bringing it to shore. From the part of the net in which the animal was entangled, it was clear that it had been approaching from the mainland; it could not have swam off from the Singapore shores, for several rows of nets lying further in were uninjured.

This circumstance first directed attention to the probability that it was from Johore that Singapore was supplied with tigers, and it is said that since then they have on several occasions been seen swimming across the channel. It is beyond doubt that, once established on the island, they have since increased and multiplied,* but it is probable that considerable reinforcements are still from time to time received from the mainland.

What has induced these animals to leave the mainland of Johore, where the forests are undisturbed, for the limited jungles of Singapore, it is difficult to say, unless it be their horrible love for human blood. In Johore, game is plentiful; there are deer and wild hogs in much greater abundance than in Singapore,

* This is certain, as cubs only a few days old have frequently been caught.

and a host of other animals besides, that are unknown on the island, among which are the buffalo, rhinoceros, and elephant; indeed, as far as animal life is concerned, it is beyond all doubt that the mainland is richer in every species except man. On the island, however, they have now established themselves, nor does it seem at all probable that they will leave it as long as a strip of jungle remains.

The manner in which they execute their destruction upon man is simple and uniform. Though ferocious, they are cowardly to a degree, and while I have inquired into the circumstances attending every death by tigers for a number of years back, I have been unable to find one case where the victim was not come upon unawares, and from behind. The animal moves rapidly and noiselessly through the tangled brushwood of the jungle as near to its intended victim as possible, and there keeps watch, it may be for hours, for a fitting opportunity. This occurs when, if the poor fellow be a gambier planter, he is intent upon stripping some out-of-the-way branch of its leaves, and has his back turned to the direction of the tiger. The brute then steps forth slowly in a crouching attitude till within seven or eight yards, when it gives one fierce and well-directed bound forward, and down goes the man, dead, with the first stroke of the beast's muscular paw. In an instant the tiger seizes the body, generally by the neck, and tossing it across its back, bounds into the jungle, where it is safe.

It is at all events some comfort to reflect that however horrible the death may appear it is quickly

suffered. There is every probability that the unhappy victim loses all consciousness, and indeed every spark of life, with the first fell stroke that knocks him down; for in almost every body that is recovered the back of the head is found completely smashed in, or the neck is found broken, the impression of the animal's paw remaining distinctly visible. The force of this blow must be something fearful. I have been told by a gentleman who had travelled a good deal in the peninsula, that he has frequently come upon buffaloes which had been killed and partly devoured by tigers, and in many cases found the frontal bone of the skull, which is nearly an inch thick, smashed in by this crushing blow of the fore-paw.

Rescue, therefore, may be said to be impossible, and I only know of one man having escaped from them after being thus struck. This was on the Sirangoon Road about five miles from town. The man was walking slowly along, when from a little eminence on the side of the road, the tiger sprang forth upon him. In springing from the bank, however, the tiger had snapped some branches of a tree, and the man was in the act of turning round to learn the cause of the sound, when the animal alighted upon him. Either disconcerted by this motion or thereby missing its aim, the fore-paw of the tiger struck the man's cheek, tearing off the flesh and skin down to his waist; but the blow did not stun him, and he had sufficient presence of mind to draw his parang, or large knife, and make a cut at the animal, on which it retreated back into the jungle.

I believe that face to face a tiger will not attack a human being, unless he displays a thorough want of nerve; the Malays are also of this opinion, but express it differently. They say that "if you will only speak to a tiger, and tell it that it can get plenty of food in the jungle beside you, the animal will be persuaded, and leave you unmolested." Unfortunately, few get the chance to speak to the tigers in this way, because, as I have stated, they almost invariably steal up behind those they intend to attack. I have, however, heard the following account told by an old Malay of an attack which he prevented by an appeal to the better nature of the animal. He was returning home after a visit to town to his house at Selita, along that part of the road which I have described as being the most thickly surrounded by jungle. He had his little child, a boy of seven or eight years old, slung behind him, and both were contentedly chewing away at jagong,* when the father on lifting up his eyes saw a tiger crouching down right in front of him, and apparently preparing for a spring. Calling to mind the old saying, he gasped out a few sounds and found that they appeared to arrest the tiger, but being anxious not to risk the life of his son, he moved slowly backward to a tree which he remembered to have passed a few yards behind. The tiger advanced upon him step for step as he retreated. When the old man's back touched the tree, he told his son to climb up. This the boy did, and the father relieved of anxiety on

* Indian corn.

his account, drew his wood-knife and commenced an advance, arguing all the while with the keenest logic—sharpened no doubt by the occasion—that it would be infinitely better for both to part without quarrelling. This advance and retreat continued for about fifty yards, when the tiger, either persuaded by the logic, or daunted by the bravery of the man, turned tail, and bolted into the jungle.

Mr. Vaughan, in his notice of the Malays, tells of a remarkable instance which fell under his observation. "Several men had been killed at a village in Province Wellesley by the same tiger, and for many nights he had been heard prowling about the houses regardless of cattle and dogs that fell in his way. He was evidently bent on catching one of the inhabitants. Finding at length that the villagers kept close, he actually sprang at the door of a house at night, burst it open, seized a man from his bed and walked off with him. At daylight he was traced by his foot-prints into the jungle, and the body of the man was found partly devoured. A native who was a famous shot was in the neighbourhood, and he proposed that the remains of the poor fellow should be kept in the house, as the tiger would be sure to return for a second meal. This was done, and over the door of the house a strong platform was erected, on which the native took his station with his gun. Sure enough the tiger a little after nightfall returned to the house, and was shot through the head."

But it is seldom that any account can be rendered of encounters with tigers, beyond that which is to be

gathered from the mangled remains of the victims. These are presented to the beholder in every variety of dismemberment and mutilation. A leg, a foot, an arm, and sometimes the head, is gone. From two recently recovered bodies the heads only were missing, and the other parts apparently untouched. In some cases the chest is torn open and the heart and lungs devoured, while in a few the body has been found perfect, but sucked completely dry of blood—a gash and the mark of the animal's fangs on the throat showing where the suction had been applied. The thigh, however, appears to be the part best liked by the tigers, and in the greater number of bodies recovered both thighs are eaten to the bone, while below the knee the leg is untouched. It is a horrible spectacle, the view of one of these mangled corpses, and raises up in the breast of the beholder a feeling of malignant hatred against these brute murderers.

No extensive or combined action has as yet been attempted for the extirpation of these monsters; nor does it appear very clearly how such could be effected. If the island could be cleared and kept free of jungle, no doubt the tigers would immediately desert it; but such a proceeding on the part of Government is completely impracticable, even if it were advisable. It would cost many times the year's revenue of the settlement to cut down and burn all the jungle on the island, and when this was done, it would annually take tens of thousands of pounds to keep it down. The only means by which we can look for a reduction of the jungle is in a more extended cultivation of the

60835

soil; but agriculture unfortunately, though stimulated by the present high prices of produce, and by the very easiest terms of land tenure, has of late years been decidedly on the decline. It is to the rifles or traps of those, induced by the reward offered or by the love of sport to undertake the hunt, that the destruction of tigers is left; even the convicts who are detailed for the service go out on the understanding that they will obtain the stipulated reward only if successful.

Of the ten tigers destroyed during the past four years' eight have been shot and the other two captured by means of traps. There is nothing exciting about tiger shooting here, and consequently few join in it from pleasure. Covered huts are built on two or three of the trees around the spot where it is thought the tiger is most likely to appear, and in each of these a man with one or two loaded pieces beside him keeps watch, one by night and one by day, till the tiger appears or is known to have shifted his quarters. It is usual to tie a bullock or some dogs to a stake in the centre of the guarded trees as a lure to the tiger. Watches of this sort often continue for weeks—and dreary, uninteresting, uncomfortable affairs they are—and after all the chances are ten to one that no tiger shows itself. It frequently happens, too, that the tiger actually carries off the bait uninjured, owing either to the watchers being asleep or to their ill-directed firing. There is an American here, an old backwoodsman, who has for many years devoted himself to the destruction of these animals; he is known

as Carol, the tiger hunter; but he has had but poor sport of it in Singapore, having only upon two occasions succeeded in obtaining the reward—though I believe he has killed many tigers in Johore. He is of eccentric habits, but is kindly treated by the Chinese planters throughout the island and by the Malays in Johore, and seems content with the hunter's life.

I have learned something of the habits of the tigers of Singapore from this hunter. I do not suppose they will be found to differ from those of the same animal in other parts of the world; but, being gathered from the personal observation of this man in the jungles of Singapore and the Malay peninsula, I may as well relate them. The tigress goes with young for about two months; towards the close of this period she separates from her mate, and seeking the shelter of a fallen tree in the loneliest and grassiest part of a thicket, or sometimes in a cave amongst the rocks, she brings forth from two to five cubs. On leaving the lair she always covers her little ones up carefully—sometimes she places them in the hollow of a decayed log, and at others scratches a hole two feet deep in the ground, and depositing them there covers them over with loose soil through which they can breathe. All these precautions are taken to save her progeny from their most inveterate enemy—the "tiger-father," who hunts about for the place of concealment, and if he discovers it, immediately devours every one of the cubs. Carol estimates that seven out of every ten cubs born meet their death in this unnatural manner; and so, he says, in the notes he has fur-

nished to me, "has Providence limited the too rapid increase of this scourge of creation." Alligators show a similar disposition, and in even a more aggravated degree, for besides the males eating up all the eggs they come across, the females also prey upon the contents of one another's nests—so that a very small proportion indeed of the eggs are ever hatched.

The method of trapping tigers is simple. A pit is dug about four or five feet square and some fifteen deep, in what is thought to be the track of the animal, and covered over with dead branches, grass, and fern. A large number of these pits are scattered over the country, each owned by the man who dug it. It is a labour which is so seldom rewarded that it is left almost entirely to the convicts, who are sure of their rations whatever luck they may have. No watch is kept over these pits; the men to whom they belong go round and examine them every second day, and it is only when a tiger is snared that there is any approach to excitement. So great is the terror which these animals implant, that though secure in the pit, much caution is observed in approaching them, and among the natives he is still thought a brave man who fires the death-shot.

It has sometimes happened that a tigress has had her cub fall down one of these pits, and in such cases there is no small measure of excitement, for the tigress keeps hovering about the spot, lying for hours perhaps in the jungle, and then suddenly bounding out and leaping backwards and forwards over the pit to see that her cub is alive; but so rapid is her

motion that a shot has very little chance of taking effect. A case of this sort occurred only a few months ago.* Several men had been carried off within four or five days from the same district, and a number of fresh pits were dug. In a few days it was discovered that a well-grown cub had fallen into one of them, and as the object was to kill the mother if possible, the cub was allowed to remain in the pit uninjured, and a body of police were sent for. On the following morning about ten native peons armed with muskets, &c., arrived, under the charge of the deputy commissioner and two European inspectors. They proceeded cautiously to the mouth of the pit, and were looking down at the cub, when suddenly, with a fierce growl, the mother-tiger bounded from the jungle right into the midst of them, tearing the sides of the pit, and forcibly scattering those around it, but directly attacking none. For a moment all were petrified, for the animal was actually brushing up against them. It would have been well had they remained so, for immediately the first surprise had passed away, an ill-directed, random fire was commenced by the native peons, the effect of which was certainly fatal, but fatal in the wrong quarter. The tigress retreated reluctantly to the jungle, apparently scatheless, and it was found that one of the peons had received a shot through the body, from the effects of which he died the same evening; the deputy commissioner had himself received a ball through the sleeve of his coat.

* In January, 1864.

Discouraged by the untoward result of this first encounter, no near approach was made to the pit again that day, and though the tigress showed herself frequently, she escaped the few scattered shots that were fired at her. The brute's stubborn affection for its young, however, was destined to prove fatal to it. On the third day the police, who apparently had had enough of it, gave up the direction of affairs to a person of some experience, who, approaching to within a few yards of the pit, threw into it a large piece of wood, causing the cub to howl out loudly. On hearing the cry of its young, the tigress bounded fiercely to the mouth of the pit, and ere it could change its position, received in its breast the charge of a well-directed rifle. The cub was afterwards taken out and brought into town alive.

It is a good many years since the attention of the House of Commons was directed to the mortality reported to be then caused by tigers in Singapore. It was asked, could it be possible in an island of such limited area and with such a numerous population, that men, at the rate of one per diem, were destroyed by these jungle monsters; and inquiries were directed to be made of the Indian authorities. The then Governor, Colonel Butterworth, was written to on the subject, and his answer, I believe, was, that he could not affirm to so extensive a destruction, but that he thought at least 200 lives were each year lost in this way. Since the period that that question was put and answered, the evil has been gradually growing worse, till, at the present moment, the

mortality stands higher than ever it did before. It becomes, indeed, a serious consideration whether this increase is to go on or not,* and the subject, altogether a singular one, must be earnestly taken in hand by the future Government.

* I have thought that a few thousand dollars of the public money might be well spent in the construction of additional travellers' bungalows in the various jungle districts, to be thrown open to the use of the residents when not required for Government purposes. They would not fail to be frequently made use of, and would be likewise sure to draw around them numerous native houses, and thus eventually become the centres of little agricultural hamlets. Besides the stimulus thus given to the culture of the soil, the measure would, I am sure, have a wholesome effect in diminishing the number of tigers.

CHAPTER V.

POPULATION: ABORIGINES—MALAYS—CHINESE.

Population Tables—Aboriginal Tribes—Their Country—Their own Traditions—Driven to the Interior by the Invasion of the Malays—Customs—Feasts and Marriages—The Chase—Their Dwellings—Features—Disposition—Superstitions—Contact with the Malays.—THE MALAYS: their Origin—Number in British Settlements—Mahomedans—Hamlets—Domestic Relationship—Appearance—Comeliness of the Women—Dress—Want of Industry—Pursuits—The Tumongong and Sultan.—THE CHINESE: their Industry—Secret Societies—Obstruction to Justice—Opium Smoking—Gambling.—NATIVES OF INDIA: Klings—Bengalese—Other Asiatics—Half Castes—Progress of the Population, past and future.

THE population of Singapore may be set down roughly at 90,000 souls. The last census, necessarily in such a country a very imperfect test, made it 84,000. The population of the united British possessions in the Straits, that is, of Singapore, Penang, Province Wellesley, and Malacca, together, may be estimated at 290,000 souls, and the following table will give, at a glance, a tolerably correct idea of what elements the native part of it is composed. The numbers may be slightly above or below the truth, but I believe that the relative proportions are sufficiently accurate, having reduced them from the last reliable accounts

down to the present time by the rules which seemed in each case best to apply:—

Races.	Singapore.	Penang and P.W.	Malacca.
Aborigines	.....	.....	900*
Malays	13,500	72,000	55,000
Chinese	58,000	39,000	12,000
Natives of India	12,700	14,000	1,200
Other Asiatics	6,500	1,700	2,500
Totals	90,700	126,700	71,600

Europeans and their immediate and unmixed descendants do not, I think, number 800,† nearly two-thirds of whom are stationed at Singapore.

By far the most interesting of the races set forth above are the aborigines, and they possess a claim upon our attention quite independent of their being an element in the population. They inhabit various districts in the peninsula; those towards the north of the province of Ligor are called *Karians;* towards Kedah, Perak, and Salengore, *Samangs;* those between Salengore and Mount Ophir, *Mautras;* those from Mount Ophir to the coast, in the province of Malacca, *Jacoons;* and those in the territory of Johore, immediately behind Singapore, *Bumas.* Besides these, there are several other tribes; but those I have

* This item is considerably in excess of what has been set down in other tables; but Father Borie, the French missionary near the town of Malacca, told me that his flock of Jacoons numbered 450, and I judge that altogether there are at least twice that number within British territory.

† This figure does not include the military stationed at each settlement, nor the seafaring population, which is constantly coming and going from the ports.

named appear to me the chief divisions into which the aborigines have subdivided themselves.

The aborigines of Singapore have long since ceased to exist as a distinct race upon the island, though, doubtless, their blood flows in the veins of many of the Malays now there. But we have not altogether lost sight of them. It appears that not very long after the Malays came to settle down at Singapore, or about the beginning of the thirteenth century, a large body of the aborigines—indeed all those who had not become connected by intermarriage with the invaders, crossed over to the coast of Johore, and there rejoined the wild races of which they were doubtless originally a section; and travellers into the country of these people have encountered a tribe named after a river in Singapore, and whose rude traditions allude to the period when their ancestors had crossed over the Straits to the mainland of the peninsula. It seems to me, however, a very useless task to attempt while treating of these people to keep distinct the various tribes into which they are broken up, or to attach much weight to the slight differences of features and of language which are to be met with among them. There can be little doubt that to all intents and purposes they are the same people.

These tribes, then, that formed the aboriginal inhabitants of Singapore, and of the most southern portion of the Malay peninsula, including Malacca, wander about the hills and valleys of the country of which they were once lords paramount, very much as they did in olden times but with this difference,

that they have now altogether forsaken the coast line, and retreated to the fastnesses of the interior before the gradually encroaching inroads of the Malays. The more lonely the spot of their encampment the better suited to their taste. Scattered over a wide extent of country, it is very difficult to form anything likely to be a correct conjecture as to their numbers; but it is generally believed that, including all the tribes in all parts of the peninsula, they do not exceed 7,000 or 8,000 souls, and of this number only a very small proportion are on British soil. That they are on the decline seems certain, but it is not a rapid decline. So great is the vigour of tropical nature, that the jungle presents a barrier almost irresistible to the progress of cultivation; and to them the jungle will continue to afford a home and means of subsistence.

The accounts they give of their origin are amusing, though somewhat conflicting; but none of them indicate otherwise than that they are indigenous to the soil. Among one tribe it is stated, and with all gravity, that they are descended from two white apes, *Ounka Puteh*, who having reared their young ones sent them into the plains, where the greater number perfected so well that they became men; those who did not become men returned once more to the mountains, and still continue apes. Another account less favourable to the theory of progressive creation is that God, having in heaven called into life a being endowed with great strength and beauty, named him Batin. God, desirous that a form so fair should

be perpetuated, gave to Batin a companion, and told him to seek a dwelling upon earth. Charmed with its beauties, Batin and his companion alighted and took up their abode on the banks of the river of Johore, close to Singapore, increasing and multiplying with a rapidity and to a degree now unknown; and from these two, they say, all the tribes of the peninsula are descended. To the present day the name Batin is given to their kings or chief leaders.

Another tribe of the aborigines give the following account of their origin, and of that of the country they inhabit.* "The ground, they say, on which we stand is not solid. It is merely the skin of the earth (kulit bumi). In ancient times God broke up this skin, so that the world was destroyed and overwhelmed with water. Afterwards he caused Gunong Lulúmut with Chimúndang and Béchnák to rise, and this low land which we inhabit was formed later. These mountains in the south, and Mount Ophir, Gunong Káp, Gunong Tonkat Bangsi, and Gunong Tonkat Subang on the north (all mountains within a short radius), give a fixity to the earth's skin. The earth still depends entirely on these mountains for its steadiness. The Lulúmut mountains are the oldest land. The summit of Gunong Tonkat Bángsi is within one foot of the sky, that of Gunong Tonkat Subang is within an earring's length, and that of Gunong Káp is in contact with it. After Lulúmut had emerged, a práhu of pulái wood, covered over and without any opening, floated on the waters.

* Related by Mr. Logan in his paper on the Binnas.

In this God had enclosed a man and a woman whom he had made. After the lapse of some time the práhu was neither directed with nor against the current, nor driven to and fro. The man and woman, feeling it to rest motionless, nibbled their way through it, stood on the dry ground, and beheld this our world. At first, however, everything was obscure. There was neither morning nor evening, because the sun had not yet been made. When it became light they saw seven sindúdo trees, and seven plants of rumput sámbáu. They then said to each other,—'In what a condition are we without children or grandchildren?' Some time afterwards the woman became pregnant, not however in her womb, but in the calves of her legs. From the right leg was brought forth a male, and from the left a female child. Hence it is that the issue of the same womb cannot intermarry. All mankind are the descendants of the two children of the first pair. When men had much increased, God looked down upon them with pleasure, and reckoned their numbers."

Somewhat similar to this is the account given by the *Mantra* tribe behind Mount Ophir; they say that their fathers came originally from heaven in a large and magnificent ship built by God, which was set floating on the waters of the earth. The ship sailed with fearful rapidity round and about the earth till it grounded upon one of the mountains of the peninsula, where they declare it is still to be seen. Their fathers disembarked and took up their abode on the new earth, some on the coast, some on the plains, and others on the mountains; but all under one chief

called Batin Alam. They further relate, evidently in regard to the invasion of the Malays in the twelfth or thirteenth century, that a long time after the death of their first Batin, who had lived an extraordinary period, they were attacked by a people calling themselves Battacks, who came in boats from the sea, and slaughtered great numbers of them. Their chief, however, the descendant of Batin Alam, was a bold and courageous man, who, gathering together the remains of his people, built a large ark in which he conveyed them to a land of safety, and then returned alone to avenge the destruction of his people, and liberate his country from foreign yoke. He landed, it is said, at Malacca, where the news of his return spread about like lightning, and the Battacks gathered together in great numbers once more, as they said, to drive out the enemy; the enemy, however, though but one man, had become invulnerable—the day of reprisal was near. Meragalange, the patriotic chief, threw himself among them, and they were never able to arrest or to wound him. Turning towards his enemies he said to them, "Even your arms respect my person, tie your arms in bundles, throw them into the air, and if they can fly I will admit myself to be your prisoner for ever; if, on the contrary, your arms obey the laws of nature, and fall down upon the earth, and if mine only have the power to fly, you will obey my laws as your conqueror." The challenge was accepted, and when put to the test, the arms of Meragalange alone could fly. They flew, by themselves, cutting down the neighbouring

forests, and then returning to the astonished Battacks, cut them in pieces. All perished with the exception of one only who, having submitted himself, saved his life. Free possessor of the country, Meragalange returned to where he had left his people, and brought them all back in safety to their own land.

But about half a century after this, when Meragalange was dead, the Battacks came across once more, and drove them finally back from the coast line.

The inference to be drawn from each of these traditions seems to be pretty much the same, namely, that these inland tribes, known among the Malays now as the Orang Utang or Orang Bukit, according as they are found on the plains or among the hills, are the aborigines of the soil, who enjoyed an uninterrupted possession until the advent of the Malays towards the middle of the twelfth century.

Driven by this invasion from the Island of Singapore, and from the seaboard of the peninsula, they have led a nomadic life, wandering about from one part of the territory to another, yet still content and happy in the enjoyment of the solitary grandeur of the primeval forest. From the simplicity of their tastes they are, except those few who have had the use of opium and tobacco pressed upon them, independent of intercourse with the world at large. In return for the slightest exertion, the soil will yield an abundant supply of fruit. Indeed the exertions of the fathers frequently provide for the wants of the children; for many fruit-trees, such as the durian, the jack, and the mango, do not mature for ten or twenty years, and

then continue bearing for, it is supposed, double or treble that period. A right of property in these trees is acknowledged to lie in the children of those who had planted them, and such right is respected with punctilious honesty. There are certain parts of the forest more suited than others to the growth of particular trees, and the groves of an entire tribe often lie together. Great jubilees are held at the various fruit seasons, and the divisions of the tribe, which are scattered far apart throughout the year, gather together round the district where the trees are planted. Here they probably find the huts that served them at the same season the year previous, and if their numbers have increased, or if any of the huts have been destroyed by the weather, they are not long in constructing new ones. Their stay lasts as long as any fruit remains on the trees, and in some cases this is fully six weeks.

During these jubilees it is that marriages generally take place. The ceremony is a simple one, and the new-made acquaintance of the morning is often the wedded wife of the evening. On the part of the suitor it is more a matter of arrangement with the parents than of courtship with the daughter; but there is a form generally observed, which reminds us strongly of the old tale of Hippomenes and Atalanta. If the tribe is on the bank of a lake or stream, the damsel is given a canoe and a double-bladed paddle, and allowed a start of some distance; the suitor, similarly equipped, starts off in chase. If he succeed in overtaking her she becomes his wife, if not the match is broken

off. Like similar arrangements in our own country, it is but seldom that objection is offered at the last moment, and the chase is generally a short one; the maiden's arms are strong, but her heart is soft and her nature warm, and she soon becomes a willing captive. If the marriage takes place where no stream is near, a round circle of a certain size is formed, the damsel is stripped of all but a waistband, and given half the circle's start in advance, and if she succeed in running three times round before her suitor comes up with her, she is entitled to remain a virgin; if not, she must consent to the bonds of matrimony; as in the other case, but few outstrip their lovers.

When the fruit-trees are all exhausted the tribe retires in a body, either to some new grove, or, if none other is ready, the divisions separate, and betake themselves once more to the thick of the forest, where they can always obtain a plenteous supply of wild hogs, deer, and birds, besides wholesome roots and berries; the streams, too, afford them abundance of fish. The aborigines do not so much hunt their game as snare it. It is true they have spears which they throw with great precision, but they seem to rely more on the efficiency of their traps. It is long since elephants, rhinosceros, and the larger denizens of the forest ceased to be the objects of their chase, though as late as the time of Albuquerque we read of these aborigines bringing down ivory and tusks for barter. It is deer chiefly which they now seek to entrap, and this they do in a very primitive manner. Across the valleys through which the deer sweep, they construct slight barricades of

bamboo and timber, with numerous narrow openings, in each of which a trap is laid by bending down a young sapling, and fixing it by a slight string which must be broken before a way can be forced through the passage; the sapling let loose springs up, and drives a spear which is attached to it into the entrails of the unwary animal.

Another deadly weapon possessed by these tribes is the sumpitan, or blow-pipe, which is used chiefly against birds and squirrels, and by which deer, too, are not unfrequently killed. It is made of two thin pieces of hollowed-out bamboo, about six feet long, one within the other; the outer bamboo is highly ornamented, and intended evidently as a casing for the inner tube, which is very carefully bored. At one extremity of the inner bamboo a mouthpiece is attached; into this mouthpiece a small poisoned arrow about six inches long is placed, with a bit of wad or fungus behind, and by a strong sudden puff of the breath the arrow is sent with great velocity some fifty or sixty yards. I received one of these instruments from the Jacoon tribe in the Malacca district, and with a little practice became tolerably proficient in its use.

These people do not fish by means of a hook and bait, but use nets stretched upon the four extremities of two pieces of stick, laid one across the other, and tied together at the centre; this the fisher dips gently into the most likely part of the stream, and then quietly awaits the passage of some fish over it, when he draws it up to the surface and bags his prey. I

may mention here a rather remarkable feature of fresh-water fishing which I have noticed in Singapore. The roads there are generally lined by ditches a few feet in depth, which carry off the rain in wet weather, but are totally dry after three days' drought. I have often in the mornings on my way to town passed by these ditches when they were as dry as the road over which I travelled, and on my return in the evening, after a day of heavy tropical thunder showers, found two or three feet of water flowing through them, and men and women with rods a couple of feet in length sitting on the banks pulling out good-sized wholesome fish—some of them four or five inches long. I believe that these fish, when the water begins to dry up, burrow into the mud, and lie caked there till the next wet day renews the stream.

The dwelling of the aborigines varies according to the custom of the tribe; all, however, are well elevated from the ground. The greater number are built upon posts some seven or eight feet high, and covered with leaves or bark; but as they are liable to be forsaken at any moment, it is seldom that much care is bestowed on their construction, or that they contain much furniture or many stores. Confident in the resources of the forest and its streams, these primitive people never lay by the surplus of to-day to provide for the wants of to-morrow, but share it with their dogs. Many of the Jacoons, who according to some are the lowest type of the aborigines, build their huts in the trees, often at an elevation of twenty-five to thirty feet, and seldom of less than twenty feet. They are reached

by means of ladders, up which their old men and women, their children, and even their dogs, learn to climb with ease. It is difficult for the traveller to detect the locality of these huts by any indication which the surrounding forest offers; but on a windy day he will be apprised of their vicinity by hearing strange wailing musical notes rising and falling with the breeze. These sounds are produced by long thick pieces of bamboo, split between the knots so as to resemble the chords of a harp, which they hang on the tops of the highest trees in the forest in such a manner that the wind vibrates the chords as it sweeps by. In addition to these Eolian harps, they make out of the smaller bamboos a number of pipes, which they string together and expose, so as to be sounded by the passing wind. In stormy weather the soft wailing notes of these instruments can be heard miles off.

In appearance the aborigines are prepossessing, though it is evident at a glance that they are a low type of man.* They are of exceedingly short stature, the men seldom over five feet in height, their bodies and limbs are neatly moulded, but the former appear a little too heavy for the latter. Their heads are small and the foreheads slightly retreating, the mouth is large and the lips thick and hanging, almost entirely devoid of nerve—the nose is low in the face and shows no sign of bridge. Their eyes are small, but well set

* The Jacoons are believed to be the wildest of the tribes; and it was solemnly asserted by early travellers that they had short tails; and this is still not an uncommon story imposed upon the credulity of new arrivals.

and not sunken, and have an honest open look; the hair is generally woolly. But the various tribes differ in appearance materially, and I cannot do more than thus superficially describe them; any minute examination, though it might be valuable as applied to one tribe, would be useless in a description of the whole race.

In disposition they are simple and amiable, sensible of and grateful for the slightest good turn or kind word; they are, however, timid to a degree that prevents their seeking intercourse with Europeans. Contented and happy among themselves, they are little ambitious to alter or improve their mode of life. They are indifferent even to laziness, and are only forced to exertion by the hunger of themselves or families. They live peaceably one with another, and it is seldom indeed that even an altercation ensues between them; but if any cause of dispute should arise, they do not resort to blows, but the party believing himself injured withdraws with his family and friends to another hunting ground until a reconciliation is sought by the offender. The wandering nature of their life, and the little attachment they have to locality, renders these separations often permanent ones. They are like children—playful and well disposed to all, but acutely sensible of wrong or unkindness. They are thoroughly truthful, and have not yet learned to lie—leading simple lives, they have little to conceal.

That these aborigines believe in a God may be gathered from the accounts they themselves give of

their origin; and that they believe in the immortality of the soul may be also conceded, though some of them seem to doubt as to the preservation of their individual identity, and look upon life as a simple element in creation, distinct from substance, which on death will return to a common source to be redistributed as required. Others again speak of a heaven to be the reward of good men, and of a hell as the punishment of the wicked; but their religion whatever it may be is strongly mixed up with demonology. They believe that every man is accompanied by a good and bad angel—one leading him into danger and sickness, and another bringing him happiness and good health—but it is worthy of remark that they are much more anxious to appease and conciliate the latter than to improve acquaintance with the former; in fact, it would appear that they are rather influenced by fear than by hope. It is only when on the point of death that any of them offer up prayers to God, and these are little else than the expression of a vague desire that their souls should be well cared for. They bury their dead sometimes in a sitting posture and sometimes erect, and lay beside the bodies a supply of food and some weapons, which would seem to indicate a hope of resurrection.

The following account of the end of the world is related by the Mantra tribe.* "The human race having

* Some interesting details of these people are given by Father Borie, the Roman Catholic missionary to the Jacoons, stationed near Malacca; when I visited this gentleman in February, 1863, he gave me some papers he had written concerning them, a translation of which I afterwards contributed to the Singapore newspapers.

ceased to live, a great wind will rise accompanied by rain, the waters will descend with rapidity, lightning will fill the space all around, and the mountains will sink down; then a great heat will succeed; there will be no more night, and the earth will wither like the grass in the field; God will then come down surrounded by an immense whirlwind of flame ready to consume the universe. But God will first assemble the souls of the sinners, burn them for the first time and weigh them, after having collected their ashes by means of a fine piece of linen cloth. Those who will have thus passed the first time through the furnace without having been purified, will be successively burned and weighed for seven times, when all those souls which have been purified will go to enjoy the happiness of heaven, and those that cannot be purified, that is to say, the souls of great sinners, such as homicides and those who have been guilty of rape, will be cast into hell, where they will suffer the torments of flames in company with devils—there will be tigers and serpents in hell to torment the damned. Lastly, God having taken a light from hell, will close the portals and then set fire to the earth."

No doubt when the Malays first conquered the peninsula they must have mingled with these people, probably drawing from among them the wives which they had neglected to bring with them at their invasion. This is evidenced in the features of some of both; but the two peoples being ill-suited to amalgamate, the aborigines retired to the solitudes of the interior, and there remained for centuries in the con-

dition I have described. Not many years ago, however, when the virtues of gutta percha became known, the Malays pushed into the forests, and induced many of the border tribes to collect this valuable gum in exchange for cloth, tobacco, opium, &c. This second meeting of these two people has proved to the aborigines more unfortunate even than the first; for wherever the contact has taken place it has introduced among many of them, tastes to which they were formerly strangers, but that when once acquired they cannot control. To satisfy these, they regardlessly place themselves under a bondage of debt, which in many cases ends only with life. In their dealings with these childlike people the Malays are most unscrupulous and practise all sorts of imposition; but the aborigines though conscious of their own simplicity and alive to the roguery they suffer, are yet too honourable to throw off obligations into which they have voluntarily entered, no matter by what deceits they were induced to do so. Their timid nature, however,* and the subdued demand for the products of the forest, will it is to be hoped preserve the great bulk

* The dread some of these tribes entertain of contact with the Malays was lately illustrated in a peculiar manner. The Tumongong had to cut a road through the forest, across part of his territory in Johore; the aborigines were the only people who could do it properly, and an intimation of the Tumongong's desire that they should undertake the work, was by some means conveyed to them. They commenced operations at once, without any bargain being made, but fled into the jungle on every attempt to approach them; they, however, marked a stump of a tree in a peculiar manner, and on this the reward of their labour was placed from time to time. It was always taken away in the night, no complaints being made as to its sufficiency. The whole work was completed in this way.

of the aborigines for a long time to come from this fatal contact; and the benignity of the British Government at Malacca will at least secure to the tribes who wander there, protection from oppression and imposition. But it would be unjust to the Malay to leave him to be judged by the influence which his contact has had and is likely to have upon the aboriginal tribes. The Malays, who have pushed their way into the recesses of the jungle to force a trade upon its primitive people, are not a fair representation of the race. They are those who have themselves been sadly corrupted by intercourse with the heterogeneous trading communities of European ports, and who have had their avarice and cupidity excited to the exclusion of many good and amiable qualities. Both in Singapore and the other English settlements the bulk of the Malay population mix but little in commercial pursuits, and retain most of the good qualities and many of the original habits of their race.

The Malays are entitled to be looked upon as the first rulers and the present people of Singapore and the Malay peninsula; for the aborigines were never numerous, nor do they appear at any time to have raised up a system of government, but only to have wandered about in scattered tribes; and though their traditions point to a time when they checked the Malayan invasion, it seems to me that this was in all likelihood only the driving back of a few stranger prahus, and not the repelling of an invasion. It will be seen from the short sketch which I have given of the early history of Singapore, that there at all

events the Malays were met by no resistance, and as they had greatly increased in numbers before they were driven from that island by the Javanese to seek a new settlement on the mainland of the peninsula near Malacca, it is highly improbable that their landing there could have been seriously opposed by a few rudely armed tribes possessing no organization.

For the origin of the Malays we must look a long way beyond either Singapore or the peninsula; for though we know it was from Sumatra that they came there, still it is believed by some that Sumatra itself had been invaded by them not many centuries before. But the search has proved a fruitless one to many painstaking inquirers. We find the entire Archipelago as far east as New Guinea, and from some degrees north of the line to the borders of Australia, peopled by Malay races more or less resembling those of the Straits, and using many words in common; but it is impossible to say for certain where they are indigenous and where they have merely planted themselves by migration, or, perhaps, by conquest. In all probability the Javanese, the Dayaks of Borneo, and the Bugis of Celebes, are the aborigines of the islands they inhabit, but whether they alone have peopled the rest of the Archipelago, must remain a matter of conjecture. The maritime habits of all these peoples, the smooth tempestless waters of the seas that surround them, and the regular and reliable changes of the monsoons, point to an easy and rapid colonization. Mr. Crawfurd inclines to the belief that each tribe came into being in the country in which it is found, like the indigenous

plants and animals that surround it, and that the similarity of languages is owing to those circumstances which I have set down as favourable to the idea of colonization; but it appears to me that the bulk of evidence is in favour of the whole of the inhabitants of the Archipelago and of the Malayan peninsula being one family of the human race.

Long separation, however, the seclusion of the inhabitants of some countries and the exposure of those of others, first to the converting zeal of the Mahommedan missionaries, and afterwards to the contact and influence of western nations, has gradually given birth to distinctions of greater or lesser breadth; and the Malays that we find in Singapore and the British possessions in the Straits are but in part the representatives of the entire race. It is to them, however, that I must here confine my observations. They number, as will be seen from the table given near the beginning of the present chapter, nearly 140,000 in the three possessions; in Singapore, 13,500; in Penang and Province Wellesley, 72,000; in Malacca, 55,000. The independent native states of the peninsula are entirely peopled by them, and from these and from Sumatra, constant additions are being made to the Malay population of the British possessions.

Unlike the nomadic tribes of the aborigines, the Malays of the peninsula have always been lovers of good order and an established government. In their independent states they have first a sultan, who is all powerful; under him there are datuhs, or governors, selected from among the men of rank, and under these

again there are pangulus, or magistrates, all standing very much in their relation to the people as our own nobility stood in feudal times to the people of England. They are, therefore, easily governed, and sensible of the benignity of English law, they form the most peaceable and probably the most loyal portion of our native population.

The Malays in the Straits of Malacca were converted to the faith of Mahommed in the thirteenth century; but whether it be that their conversion was not at first complete, and that many of the early superstitions were left behind, or that it is simply the result of degeneracy, certainly the duties of their religion seem to sit very lightly upon the great bulk of them. It is true that when they accumulate a fortune, which very few of those in the Straits ever do, they expend a portion of it in a trip to the shrine of the prophet at Mecca; but this is scarcely an indication of great piety; it is rather a desire, by one considerable temporal sacrifice, to make up for a good many spiritual shortcomings, both past and future. But their sins, or at least the sins of those who are uncorrupted by the vices of the other populations who have crowded in upon them, are not heinous, and, as concerns their own religion, are chiefly those of omission. I should perhaps here except the ancient practice of piracy, which is not yet quite eradicated; but this sin has to be laid to the doors of a seafaring population, for whose shortcomings even in our own country, we are accustomed to make considerable allowances. Malays as a rule seldom

Vincent Brooks, lith.

MALAY FISHING HAMLET NEAR SINGAPORE

Published by Smith, Elder & Co. London, 1865.

appear in our criminal courts; when they do, it is generally for some act committed in a sudden outburst of passion; they are rarely charged with theft or fraud.

In their domestic relationship they are frank, amiable, and often generous. Deceit forms but a small part of their nature. They are strongly attached to their homes and to their families, and there is probably no more pleasing picture of social happiness than is presented by many of the Malay hamlets, even in British territory. And it is, indeed, rather to these than to the crowded streets of our towns that we must go for a glimpse into the life of this people. Their hamlets are composed of twenty or thirty neat little houses or huts, built of the leaves of a species of palm-tree, usually raised on posts some four or five feet from the ground, with little ladders reaching up to the doorways. The houses are uniform in appearance, but not planted with much regard to order; and the entire hamlet generally reposes under the shadow of a cluster of cocoanut and other fruit-trees, which though unfenced are not held in common, but are allotted so many to each family, and scrupulously respected as private property. The people of a hamlet are generally connected by birth or by marriage, and share each other's joys and sorrows. A marriage is a feast and a holiday, and a death a day of mourning for the entire hamlet. Under the shade of the same trees as shelter these houses, rests the village cemetery; and round the grassy mounds and wooden posts that mark the graves, I have noticed their little naked

children playing fearlessly. I have often seen, too, gently laid on an old grave from which the head-post had nearly rotted away, garlands of fresh, sweet-smelling flowers—a fair token that their dead are not soon forgotten.

Though their religion permits it the Malays have seldom a multiplicity of wives. The poverty of the bulk of the people, and the proportion of the sexes, probably combine to prevent it. I once asked a sensible Malay how it came that so few of his countrymen had more than one wife, when the prophet authorized polygamy both by precept and example. "The women in the prophet's time," he replied, "must have been different from what they are now; "for I never knew a man yet who kept two wives in "one house here, and led a happy life." Whatever may be the cause of these single marriages, they have had a very happy effect on the life of the Malay; for between husband and wife, though the matrimonial contract is easily completed and as easily annulled, there subsists a sincere and generally lasting attachment. The men are far more gallant than the natives of other parts of the East, and those they love, they also respect. But as a consequence of the slight nature of the legal bonds that bind man and wife together, and of the ease with which divorce can be obtained by either party, they are jealous in proportion to the intensity of their love. The Malay who knows that a few dollars to the katib, or priest, will obtain for his wife a divorce which is valid both in the eyes of his own society and in English law, watches with

natural uneasiness the attentions paid to her by another man; and very many of the amoks which have taken place in Singapore have had their origin in jealousy.

As a rule, however, the women are constant and faithful, and after marriage esteem their virtue their chief ornament. Before marriage I am not quite clear but that gallantry is carried to somewhat extreme lengths, and that small attentions to the gentler sex are rewarded by favours altogether fatal to maiden chastity; but as betrothal frequently takes place before puberty in the female, and very seldom long after it, but few are ever exposed to these dangerous attentions, and those who are so, suffer but for a short period. When women become mothers they throw aside, apparently without regret, their pleasures, and the finery of their own persons, to give their whole heart to the nursing of their offspring; and, indeed, before they are many years married, they have time for little else, for they are fruitful to a degree unknown in colder latitudes. It is a common sight to see one of these dusky matrons, still young and comely, with a baby at her breast, another too young to toddle—slung behind her, and a troop of four or five naked urchins gambolling at her heels. Both parents are kind to their children, and govern rather through affection than by force, the result being that old age is with them an honoured estate.

The physique of the Malay is of a high order. The men are short, being on an average about five feet three inches in height; but they are well pro-

portioned, round, full limbed, and generally possessing a good, honest, open countenance. Their feet and hands are small, and their fingers long and tapering with well-shaped nails. In fact, they show most of those points which we ourselves set down as the indices of good breeding. Their eyes are dark brown, or black, with a bold, yet not impudent expression; and their hair—which only grows upon the head—is jet black and usually cut short. In hue they are a copper colour, varying a good deal in intensity, and when young have soft, smooth skin. The women are generally fairer than the men, equally well made, and with all the more liberal development of the sex; in one respect, at least, they have in form the advantage over the women of Europe. Their eyes are soft and lustrous, with long drooping lashes, their lips are full, but not thick, and when they part, discover well-set pearly teeth, except in those, by far too numerous, who are given to siri chewing. The women wear their hair long, combed back from the forehead, and gathered into a thick knot behind. The expression of the face is one of modesty, kindness, and good-nature. I would describe the majority, when young at all events, as good-looking, and very many are more than that. Nor is their comeliness of a kind attractive only to their own countrymen; they are eagerly sought for in marriage by the Chinese, the Arabs, and other native races; and it is well known that they have not unfrequently charmed the taste, and won the love of Europeans, who if they do not take them to wife, at least ought to do so, according to strict justice.

Both men and women dress neatly and tastefully, and however meagre and worn out the garments they may use while at work, still the very poorest never fail to appear to advantage on holidays. The uniform dress of the men consists of a *baju*, or jacket, generally white; of the *sluar*, or a short pair of pants, with a *sarong*, a sort of petticoat, as wide at the top as at the bottom, gathered round the waist, and reaching as low as the knees, and a coloured handkerchief, or *saputangan*, tied round the head. The garb of the women is even more simple: a *sarong* is fastened under the arms and over the breast of the young, and round the waist of the full grown, reaching a little above the ankle; and over the shoulders is worn a *kabia*, a loose flowing robe open in front, and reaching to within one or two inches of the ground. A few wear the same handkerchief over the head as the men, but tied in another way; the majority, however, wear no covering, but have the hair adorned with gold or copper ornaments. With many virtues, the Malays of the present day are not industrious. It has been claimed for the Dyaks of Borneo, that they are all gentlemen, because they never accumulate the fruits of their labour; they will work, it is said, for the day's, or it may be the week's support; but, when they have attained the required means and laid toil aside, the payment of no consideration will induce them to break in upon their leisure or enjoyment—they are above everything but the immediate pressure of want. According to this theory, which I do not dispute, the Malays are essentially gentlemen too; they have no acquisitiveness, and if they

can satisfy the wants of the moment they are happy—they lay great store by the proverb that sufficient for the day is the evil thereof. In a less genial clime, and with a more selfish people, the philosophy would be a poor one; but here, where nature is so kind, and where generosity is a native characteristic, it is sound enough. Long usage gives the Malay almost a right to partake of the hospitality of his neighbour, whom it might be his turn to relieve next day, and should the worst befall, he knows that with the jungle before him he need never starve. Under these circumstances, it is no wonder he is a more independent man than the English labourer at home, who sees nothing before him but daily work or starvation.

Those who live in the country districts of the settlements, and are not labourers in plantations, direct their attention altogether to the cultivation, generally of fruit and paddy;* seldom or never to that of gambier or tapioca, probably because both these require a laborious preparation before they are fit for market. They also hunt and fish when the seasons and circumstances are favourable. The occupations of the Malays in the town are much more diversified, a very considerable number become sailors, and form the crews of most of the vessels employed in the country trade of the Straits; that is, with China, Siam, Java, the Archipelago, Burmah and India, and very good sailors they make as long as they are kept in warm latitudes. They divide with the Chinese the supply of the town

* The rice plant.

with fish; but while the Chinese adopt the more laborious and more profitable method of casting and hauling their nets, the Malays in most cases simply erect permanent stakes on the fishing banks, and content themselves with the few chance fish which each ebb tide leaves them. Nearly all the private coachmen and syces, or grooms, in the employment of Europeans are Malays; they appear to be fond of horses, and manage them well. It is remarkable that though Chinamen are to be found in almost every calling here, there is not I believe in the three settlements, certainly not in Singapore, a single Chinese groom or coachman; nor on the other hand have I seen or heard of a Malay tailor. Most of the gardeners attached to the residences are Malays, and a few are employed as private house-servants. Besides these regular employments, a very large number of Malays find a living by hawking poultry, fruit, and other products about town.

Though there are numerous Malay traders arriving throughout the year from all parts of the Archipelago, it is somewhat remarkable that as yet in none of the three settlements are any Malay merchants to be found. Parsees, Chinese, Klings, and Bengalese have mercantile establishments that closely vie with those of Europeans, but the Malay never rises to be more than a hawker; and this is the result, no doubt, of that want of ambition to be rich which I have noticed before. It cannot be from want of education, for the larger proportion of them here can both read and write their own language. When the Malays were

converted to Mahommedanism, 600 years ago, they were also taught by the priests the use of the Sanscrit character, and this has been preserved to the present time with singularly few alterations, so that an Arabic scholar would find no difficulty in reading Malay writings.*

The head of the Malays in Singapore is the Tumongong, whose grandfather, with the then Sultan of Johore, signed the treaty by which the island was ceded to the British. By a subsequent arrangement

* I have not alluded to the manner or to the implements either of husbandry, of the chase, or of other pursuits, though some of these might be worthy of notice in a work of more extended limits. There is one peculiarity, however, which I will mention, as it might, I think, be capable of improved application at home; it is the method adopted by some of obtaining fire. It is true that this is not the usual method, nor do I remember to have seen it alluded to by any other writer; I have witnessed it, nevertheless, repeatedly availed of by the Malays of the Straits; and in some of the islands to the eastward of Java where I first saw it, it is in constant use. A small piece of round horn or hard wood about three or four inches long and three-quarters of an inch in diameter is carefully bored through the centre for three-fourths of its length, with a hole about a quarter of an inch in diameter. To fit this, a sort of ramrod or piston of hard wood is made, loose all along, but padded with thread and cotton at the point, so as to be as nearly air-tight as possible, when placed into the hole of the little cylinder. In fact, the apparatus exactly resembles the small tow or pop-gun used by boys at home, except that the hole is not all the way through, but only three-quarters. When used, the cylinder is held firmly in the fist of the left hand; a small piece of tinder, generally dried fungus, is placed in a cavity on the point of the piston, which is then just entered into the mouth of the bore; with a sudden stroke of the right hand the piston is forced up the bore, from which it rebounds slightly back with the elasticity of the compressed air, and on being plucked out, which it must be instantly, the tinder is found to be lighted. The light thus produced has certainly nothing to do with friction, for it is the stuffing of the piston only that comes in contact with the cylinder, the tinder being placed in a cavity on the point of the piston, clear of the sides of the cylinder. I can only attribute the light produced to the sudden and powerful compression of the air in the bore of the cylinder.

between themselves, but with the approval of the British authorities, and to which I have already referred, the present Sultan not long ago sold his birthright of the sovereignty to Johore to the present Tumongong's father, who was his hereditary vassal; but, strange to say, retained as he still does the title of Sultan. It has been a badly managed piece of business, and has given rise to great dissatisfaction among the rajahs of the peninsula, who refuse to acknowledge the Tumongong—because, in point of hereditary rank, he is beneath many of them. With respect to the island of Singapore it is beyond doubt that the Tumongong's family had great claims, both because they so cordially assisted our settlement, and because, though subject to the seignory of the Sultan, the soil appears to have been their property. In point of ability and education, too, the Tumongongs have been far in advance of the Sultans; and, in the affairs of the island, have been the men with whom our Government has invariably had to deal. But, on the other hand, we have done a great deal for the Tumongong's family, which by our occupation has been raised to a wealth and importance it would never otherwise have attained; and it appears to me that the English Government will do wisely to abstain from much interference in the native politics of the peninsula, and should disturbances arise there, our course should be to let the popular will have its way. We had a lesson taught us in the Tringano business, which it will be well to bear in mind. Our moral influence, added to a few days' vigorous bombardment,

was used in favour of one claimant to the Bandaharaship of Pahang, whose family has after all been set aside, and the man whom we opposed now reigns peaceably and quietly by the people's choice. The present Tumongong is an amiable and high-minded native gentleman, more desirous, I think, of peace and quiet than of great power; and if difficulties should afterwards arise in our relation with him, it will be very much the blame of those who inconsiderately forced ambition upon him. In illustration of the false position which some people in their zeal assign to him, I may mention, that not many months ago—in a civil action brought against him in Singapore—the jurisdiction of our court was disputed, because it was argued that the Tumongong was an independent sovereign, and the evidence of the resident councillor was decidedly in favour of the inability of our court on that account to try the case. The point has not yet been determined, but it is to be hoped the court may be able to rule otherwise, and so avoid a precedent which would be most calamitous in its consequences.

I now pass on to the Chinese population, which, though entirely the result of immigration since the British settlement in the Straits,* stands next to the Malays in the census of the colony—numbering over 120,000—at the three stations. They are by far the most industrious, and, consequently, the most valuable people we have in these possessions—the development

* Except at Malacca.

of the internal resources of which is almost entirely due to them. In Singapore all the gambier and pepper produced is of their growth, and the sago is of their manufacture; in Penang and Province Wellesley also, the chief plantations are in their hands or worked by them; and in Malacca all the tin, all the sago, and all the tapioca is of their production. Unlike the Malays, they are ambitious and become rich; and though this ambition has generally its origin in the desire to return to China in affluent circumstances, yet our possessions not the less benefit by their labour, and while many never attain the full realisation of their aspirations, others as they grow rich become attached to the country and its laws, seek wives from among the comely daughters of the soil, and abandon all idea of returning to their native land.*

The proportion, however, of those who may be said to have permanently settled down is small, and the yearly addition to the Chinese population from birth altogether insignificant. The number is kept up entirely by immigration. During the months of December, January, February, March, and April, fleets of junks crammed with Chinese coolies arrive at all the ports in the Straits from the different provinces of China. In Singapore the arrivals for the first four

* A Chinaman who had come to Singapore a poor man about thirty years ago, died in March this year (1864) worth close upon two millions of dollars. He had gradually grown up to be an extensive merchant, planter, and tin-miner; had adopted the settlement as his home, and has left behind him many memorials of his public spirit and charity. Another Chinaman, I ought to mention, failed this year for about 750,000 dollars.

months of the present year (1864) were 8,560 males and 109 females—and for the whole year about 14,000, which is not much above the average of other years. Were this immigration in no way counterbalanced, the Chinese population of the Straits would soon become enormous, but it may be estimated that those who yearly return to China number quite two-thirds of the arrivals. The manner in which this Chinese immigration is carried on, and the contracts by which the men are bound down, I have already mentioned; they are often unsatisfactory enough, but those upon which the females are brought into the country are, according to all accounts, still more deplorable: young girls from twelve years old and upwards being retained in forced courtezanship to a population where the males are as fifteen to one of the females. Thanks, however, to the demand for labour and its high reward on the one hand, and to the demand for wives on the other, neither condition of bondage endures long.

The character of the Chinese has frequently been described, and no change of scene or circumstance seems materially to affect it. They have attained a high civilization of their own sort, and this keeps, and I think always will keep, them distinct from the other peoples with whom they mingle. I have met them in the most out-of-the-way islands in the Archipelago, where, perhaps, a dozen of them had formed a settlement, and had gradually monopolized the trade of a people numbering many thousands, without any concession in dress, in religion, or in manners; they were

the same in every respect as are to be found in Java, in the Straits, and in the sea-ports of their own country. There are good and bad among them; the best have bad points, and the worst a few redeeming ones; it is only as their character and manners affect them as an element in the population of the Straits that I have anything to say.

One of the characteristics they seem to carry with them into whatever country they may adventure, is a strong love of home, not a patriotic attachment to China generally, but a love for the province, the town, and the very homestead from which they come. This involves many good and amiable qualities—a kindly regard for all who may belong to the same province or district, and a constant industry and a careful economy, that they may by a yearly remittance testify to their relations they have left behind at home that they do not forget them. But from this very love of home and country springs the great evil which marks the Chinese population of the Straits. China is divided into many large provinces, with nationalities as distinct as the different States of Europe, and this is no exaggeration, for the inhabitants of each speak a different language. Between these, from time out of mind, have jealousies existed and feuds been carried on; the people of the one are born and reared up in hatred of the other, and these jealousies are not obliterated by emigration. The Chinese who arrive in the Straits come from several of these distinct provinces; and the people of each find themselves, for the first time in their lives, thrown together in a town

or in a district where they must lay aside at least all outward display of enmity.

Instead of forgetting their national prejudices, or postponing their indulgence of them till their return to China, the people of each province clan together and form a hoey or secret society. The avowed object of these hoeys is to afford mutual protection, but they are often used for the infliction of wrong, and have been found a great stumbling-block to the perfect administration of justice in the law courts of the Straits. The form of admittance to these societies is sufficiently solemn in the eyes of the Chinese, and the oaths administered, sufficiently binding, to afford security against the disclosure of their organization, and always to obtain implicit obedience to their mandates. Every candidate for admission is led blindfold to the hall where sit the officers of the society; all the doors are guarded by men dressed in rich silk robes, and armed with swords. A few preliminary questions are put to the candidate, when he is led into the centre of the hall, and the bandage removed from his eyes. He is then forced to worship in silence for half an hour before any oaths are administered to him. After this a priest comes up, and opening a large book swears in the candidate: "You have come here uninfluenced by fear, by persuasion, or by love of gain, to become a brother; will you swear before God to reveal nothing that you see and hear this night, and to obey all orders you receive from the society, and to observe its laws?" On the candidate solemnly affirming to this, the laws of the society are read out, each being separately

sworn to. Some of the chief of these, for they are very numerous, are—

"You shall not reveal the proceedings of the society to any but a brother."

"You shall not cheat or steal from a brother, nor seduce his wife, his daughter, or his sister."

"If you do wrong or break these laws, you shall come to the society to be punished, and not go to the authorities of this country."

"If you commit murder or robbery you shall be dismissed for ever from the society, and no brother will receive you."

"If a brother commits murder or robbery you shall not inform against him; but you shall not assist him to escape, nor prevent the officers of justice from arresting him."

"If a brother is arrested and condemned, and is innocent, you shall do all you can to effect his escape."

A number of signs by which the members may recognize one another are also communicated. The whole ceremony has a strongly religious aspect, and the hall of meeting is furnished very much as their temples are. Nor would there be much cause to complain of the influence of these societies were their rules conscientiously adhered to, and the exercise of power by their head men confined to the settlement of disputes between the members, or to the punishment of petty crimes. Or, could there be but one society for the whole Chinese population, its influence might be equally harmless. But each nationality has one or

more societies of its own, and they keep alive all that rancour and clan jealousy which is imported from China. The Chinese riots of 1854 were originated and maintained by the power of these societies, and almost all the fights which so frequently take place in the streets of Singapore are due to the party spirit which they foster.

The manner in which they interfere with our administration of justice is very deplorable, as it renders Chinese evidence on oath a most unreliable test, in any case where members of rival hoeys are concerned, or where the heads of a society have prejudged the matter for or against a culprit; in these cases, every means is deemed legitimate to bring about the purposes of the hoey. A case strongly illustrative of this occurred in Singapore many years ago. A murder had been perpetrated, and three men were charged with the crime before the police magistrate, on the evidence of an eye-witness. The prisoners were committed, and on the day of trial at the Supreme Court the principal witness stepped into the box, declared to having seen the murder committed, and gave all the details which had been taken down by the magistrates. The man was about finishing his evidence, when the magistrate himself happened to come into court, and looking narrowly at the features of the witness declared to the recorder that he did not believe he was the same man who had appeared before him at the police court. A strict inquiry was made, and at last the witness confessed that the man who had seen the murder, and given evidence before the police, had run away,

and that he was told to take his place, and say what he had said. The recorder ordered him to be taken at once to the bridge across the river, and there receive six dozen. No doubt, one hoey, on behalf of the prisoners, had procured the deportation of the original witness, and another, determined that justice should not be defeated, had obtained this substitute.

Were it not for the evil influence of these societies, the Chinese would be unexceptionable, as they certainly are very valuable citizens; but as it seems that these institutions are ineradicably planted among them, I think they might be taken advantage of to introduce a system of registration so much required among this section of the population of the Straits.

When I say that the Chinese would be unexceptionable citizens were it not for these secret societies, I mean as regards the commonwealth, for individually considered they have many vices. They smoke opium, and they gamble; the former is a vice which extends in a greater or less degree to probably one-third of the Chinese population. I have explained in a previous chapter the method of opium smoking; its consequences when indulged in to excess are too well known to require that I should describe them; it is enough to say that continued and heavy indulgence utterly destroys the strongest and most robust constitution, leaving the miserable sensualist for ever unfit to enjoy life if he be rich, and unable to continue labour, if poor. I am not aware, however, that its moderate use is attended with any particularly distressing consequences, nor do I think that this mode-

rate use of opium is half so likely to lead on to an abandoned and unlimited indulgence as a moderate use of alcohol is likely to lead to excess and drunkenness.

Gambling is a vice which may be said to be national among the Chinese, and all more or less indulge in it; it is also shared, but in a much smaller degree, by the Malays. They elect various games upon which to hazard their money, but the favourite one is Poh, played with a single die, which is remarkable in so far that, though a bank game, it gives no advantage to the banker, who is paid by a percentage on the winnings. It has this in its favour, too, that it leaves no room for cheating. A heavy fine is now exacted from all found gambling, but the vice does not appear to yield to this treatment, and there is too much cause to fear that compromises for these fines are paid in advance to the police, who are thus corrupted while the vice is unrestrained. Some disclosures which took place four years ago will bear out my remarks respecting the police.

The morality of no people that I know of varies so much with their circumstances as that of the Chinese. From among the poorer and lower orders our criminal calendars are chiefly filled; they supply all sorts of offenders, thieves and housebreakers in the greatest number; nor do they appear to be very straightforward in their dealings with one another. The upper classes—those that have grown rich—on the other hand, leave behind them nearly all their vices, and lead a life distinguished by outward probity.

It is the old story: the pressure of want and the influence of temptation removed, the same people which subject to them would be vicious and debased, become moral and virtuous. But when we remember that nearly all the industry and much of the enterprise of the Straits is due to it; that it furnishes good hard-working coolies and persevering, adventurous traders, the Chinese element in the population of these settlements is entitled to be esteemed among the most valuable.

Next in the population tables of the Straits come the natives of India, chiefly Klings from Madras and the Coromandel coast, and Bengalese from Calcutta. The Klings are by far the most numerous, and are a conspicuous element in the population. They immigrate much as the Chinese do, but, leaving one British territory to come to another, the terms of their engagements are usually reasonable and just; latterly the arrivals of this class under the coolie system have very much decreased in number. The occupations sought by these people are numerous, and some of them distinct. They are traders, shopkeepers, cooks, boatmen, common labourers, hackcarriage runners, and washermen; the two latter occupations are almost entirely monopolized by them. They are industrious and persevering, and consequently valuable to the Settlement; but they have failed to obtain any measure of good-will either from the Europeans or the other native races in the Straits. The dislike of the European is due to an insolence of manner, which is either natural to them or acquired

in the pursuits they adopt. As hack-carriage runners, the bargainings and bickerings they have about their fares are not well-calculated to encourage a respectfulness of manner. Neither is their appearance prepossessing; they are very black, often ugly, and go about nearly naked.

The Bengalese are not numerous, nor do they appear to have selected any distinctive occupation as the Klings have; but may be found sharing various employments.

Under the term "other Asiatics," are included Burmese, Siamese, Javanese, Bugis from the Celebes, Boyans from the Island of Bawian off the coast of Java, Parsees, and Arabs. I have also allowed to be added to the numbers under this head all such as are of mixed blood, and whom it has been usual to class as the "descendants of Europeans." I have done this with no view to disparage the immense superiority which an admixture of European blood undoubtedly gives, but because I am anxious to keep the Europeans themselves distinct, as I believe a better conception of the condition of the Settlement will be thereby secured to the reader. The number of those who are not of pure European blood may be set down at 6,500;* but the degrees of remoteness are exceedingly varied, which is another cogent reason for the course I have adopted.

The populations of all the three stations have

* Inclusive of the Portuguese of Malacca, who number about 2,500, but who almost appear to have lost every trace of the blood as well as of the spirit of their ancestors.

steadily increased during the past forty years, as will be seen from the following table : —

—	Singapore.	Penang and Province Wellesley.	Malacca.
1824	11,500	48,500	—
1834	20,000	82,000	29,000
1844	40,500	94,000	49,000
1854	65,000	113,000	63,000
1864	91,000	127,000	71,000

And it would be difficult to show any good reason why this increase should not go on by similarly rapid strides. I am, however, of opinion that at Singapore, at least, it will not. Province Wellesley (the population of which has, since 1827, always considerably exceeded that of Penang, with which it is incorporated,) and Malacca may continue to be largely increased by an easy immigration from the native states of the peninsula around them; and both containing an extensive territory of rich agricultural soil besides mineral wealth, may turn the increase to the best account. But with Singapore, I think it must be otherwise; it has no internal resources to develope beyond the cultivation of its soil, and the success of the few gambier and pepper planters at present on it has apparently not been such as to lead of late to an increase of their numbers. Any additions, therefore, that are now made to its population will, in all probability, do little more than swarm the town; they cannot very well, at any rate in proportion to their numbers, increase its trade.

CHAPTER VI.

CULTIVATION: CLIMATE—FRUIT—PRODUCTS.

Temperature—Rain—Freedom from Disease—Fruits: the Mangosteen; the Durian—No fixed Seasons—Products—Gutta Percha: Manner of Collection—Gambier: Method of Preparation—Pepper: Preparation of White and Black—The Nutmeg: early Plantations at Bencoolen and Penang—Begun at Singapore—Planting Mania—Appearance of Disease or Blight—Its rapid Progress—Death of all the Plantations—Cultivation Extinct—Cocoanuts.

WITHIN seventy-seven miles of the equator, it might be expected that the climate of Singapore would be ill suited to Europeans. Such, however, is not the case. Neither is the high temperature nor the extreme humidity of the atmosphere found to interfere seriously with their health or even with their comfort. So green and beautiful is all around, that heat which would be intolerable in an arid plain or sandy desert is there scarcely appreciated, and is borne without difficulty. In Singapore time ceases to be reckoned by summer and winter; there are no seasons, not even a wet and a dry season—all is constant midsummer; and this extreme equableness, while its most remarkable feature, is after all, perhaps, the greatest objection to

the climate. It has the effect of slowly enervating the system, and unfitting it to withstand any acute disease that should overtake it. No bad effects, however, should be felt from a residence of six or seven years, and it has been maintained by all the best medical authorities in the Straits that, after such a residence, one year in a cold bracing climate is sufficient to completely restore whatever vigour may have been lost, and fit the European for another term of residence of similar duration.

The extreme range of temperature, as shown by the thermometer for the last three years, has been—

	Deg.		Deg.		Deg.
1861	71	to	92	or	21
1862	71½	,,	92	,,	20½
1863	70	,,	92½	,,	22½

In the last year, which may be fairly taken as an illustration of all others, the average range of the temperature of each month was—

	Deg.		Deg.
January	70	to	91½
February	71	,,	90
March	71½	,,	91½
April	72½	,,	92½
May	72½	,,	91½
June	73	,,	91
July	73	,,	90½
August	72	,,	91½
September	73	,,	91
October	72	,,	91
November	72	,,	89½
December	71	,,	88½

It will be seen from this how very slight is the difference between the temperature at one time of the year and another. But though this uniformity is, as I have

remarked, the most unfavourable characteristic of the climate, still it is not accompanied by a never changing aspect of the elements—in fact, there is not an everlasting sunshine, as untravelled folks are so apt to associate with the extreme heat of tropical zones. On the contrary, there is throughout the entire year—it might be said, throughout every day in that year—an agreeable alternation of sunshine and shower. Latterly, as the jungle has been cleared away from the vicinity of the town, rain is not quite so frequent or so copious as formerly, when it used to be said of Singapore, and apparently with much more justice than a similar proverb is related concerning the Scotch town of Greenock, that it rained every day. Even to the present time the longest drought that is remembered did not last quite a month, and this was broken by one or two light showers. From the observations made by a friend, and which he has kindly placed at my disposal, I find that in the last year (1863), rain fell on 184 days, and that the quantity as indicated by his pluviometer for the whole year was 86½ inches—a quantity, I believe, considerably in excess of that of temperate countries generally.

It seldom rains a whole day through; the greater part is discharged in short but heavy showers, and in big drops like those from thunder-clouds at home. The effect of these is very refreshing; they generally come when the air is unusually close and warm, and though not lasting perhaps more than half an hour or an hour, they leave it both cool and purified. Another good point in the climate is the rare absence

of a good stiff breeze from one quarter or another during the day, and of the soft land airs breathing out from the jungle at night when all more boisterous winds are hushed to rest. To these land winds is due in a great measure the coolness of the nights, which will generally admit of good sound slumber—a *sine quâ non* to health here as elsewhere.

By resorting to the neighbourhood of the jungle a degree at least of reduction in the temperature may be secured. In such places as Selita, mentioned in the fourth chapter, lying well in the interior, and with the primeval forest all around them, the additional coolness is palpable, and cannot be less than two or three degrees. Sea bathing is also a relief within easy reach, and is often availed of; but the neighbourhood of coral banks which are exposed at low water is avoided, as the exhalations produced by the heat of the sun have been found to be very unwholesome.

The climate is also one in which more out-door amusement can be enjoyed than in that of most other tropical countries. From sunrise till eight o'clock in the morning, and from half-past four in the afternoon till sunset, the sun is comparatively harmless, and even in midday Europeans walk about the square in town with apparent impunity. To be safe, however, the head should always be kept well covered, and with this precaution, the more out-door exercise indulged in the better.

Free of nearly all the diseases experienced in colder latitudes, neither Singapore, nor, indeed, either of the other stations in the Straits, is subject to any peculiar

epidemic among the natives or among the Europeans. Small-pox breaks out from time to time in the native hamlets and districts, but it is not peculiarly fatal; and latterly, as the benefits of vaccination have become more generally understood, its ravages are confined within much narrower bounds. Cholera at intervals of one or two years makes its appearance, but has never yet extended to an alarming degree, nor attacked Europeans. The last time it showed itself was in the early part of 1862, after some more than ordinarily heavy rains, but the number of victims did not exceed 100. What the European has to fear is the same as in all other hot countries, namely, a disordered liver. But this is due, perhaps, as much to the over-luxurious style of living as to the climate; and all the doctors agree that, keeping the head well protected, living temperately and regularly, and taking plenty of exercise, Europeans should, with the periodical changes indicated, enjoy nearly as good health in Singapore as at home.

Such is the climate of Singapore as it affects the residence of Europeans; and to its influence, much more than to that of the soil, is due the luxuriance and variety of the island's natural products. The soil is not particularly rich, consisting chiefly of decomposed granite, overlaid in the low-lying lands with a thin alluvial deposit, erst time carried down by the hill streams, and in the jungle by a few inches of decaying vegetation. It is to the extreme moisture—to the almost daily occurrence of refreshing showers, and to the heavy night dews—that the green grass, the rich

foliage, and rare fruits of Singapore owe their excellence. Every intertropical plant known will grow, and most will flourish, in the Straits. Possessing comparatively few indigenous fruits of excellence or plants of commercial value, the best have, by constant importation and acclimatisation from the countries around, begun even as far back as 300 years ago, been so increased as to preclude their being enumerated in the text. Among the appendices to this volume will be found a list of the chief fruits to be obtained in the market places of the three stations.

Entitled, however, to some prominence as being fruits which are indigenous, and in a great measure peculiar to the island, are the mangosteen and durian. The first is the seductive apple of the east, far more delicious and delicate in flavour than its English prototype; by many it is declared, par excellence, the finest fruit in the east, if not in the world. The durian differs essentially in nature as in appearance from the mangosteen; it grows on a very tall, wide-spreading tree, and does not ripen on the extremity of the branches, but like the jack and some other fruits, drops by a short stalk from the trunk, and the thickest of the branches. It is somewhat less than a man's head in size; outside is a thick, prickly husk, in the inside chambers of which lie the sections of the fruit, consisting of a number of seeds of about the size of a walnut, surrounded by a soft, pulpy substance, like custard in appearance, which is the edible part. The taste of the fruit it is impossible to describe, but the smell of it, from which the flavour

may be judged, is such that no gentleman in England would care about having one in his house; even in the Straits it is never set upon the table. The Malays and natives generally are passionately fond of it, and will go through any amount of hardship to procure it. A former King of Ava is said to have spent enormous sums to obtain constant supplies; and the present king keeps a steamer in Rangoon awaiting the arrival of supplies there. The fruit as soon as received is sent up the river as speedily as possible, to the capital 500 miles distant. With Europeans the liking for it is, I think, in all cases acquired; the first venture is generally made in bravado, and so singular is the fascination it possesses, that if the new arrival can overcome his repugnance sufficiently to swallow the coating of one or two seeds, he will in all probability become strongly attached to it.

I do not think, however, that the most passionate lovers of durian are disposed to acknowledge their taste. There is something decidedly unclean about the fruit; a tacit acknowledgment of this is, I think, to be gathered from the fact that it never appears on any gentleman's table, but is devoured in silence and solitude in some out-of-the-way part of the house, and a good bath indulged in afterwards. I cannot forget the exclamation of an old Scotch lady in Batavia, well known there, when she saw a newly-arrived countryman of her own being sorely tempted to try the strength of his stomach on a full-grown durian.

"Maister Thampson! Maister Thampson! ye

ma'na eat that, it'll no' agree wi' ye; and, besides, it's a maist unchaste fruit." The old lady was right and hit the proper expression.

Though I have particularly noticed the mangosteen and the durian, it is not because the supply of them is particularly great, but because they are peculiar to the Straits. The most abundant fruits are the plantain, or banana—of which there are about thirty different varieties, the pineapple, the jack fruit, the mango, the rambutan, the docoo, the orange, and the custard apple. The mangosteen is most plentiful in December, January, and February; the durian, of which there are two crops a year from the same tree, in June and July, and in December and January; and the docoo in November, December, and January. The other fruits are, I think, not more abundant at one time than at another, and even those I have mentioned can be obtained in any month of the year. So great is the uniformity of the temperature and the climate, that even nature thus neglects to mark the passing year by her usual order in the distribution of her gifts.

But the fruits which are consumed on the island possess less interest in many points of view than the products that are prepared for export. These latter are not numerous, and as very little is known of their origin, however prominent a place they may occupy among the East Indian produce sold in the English markets, I propose to allude to them at greater length.

Gutta-percha, though not now obtained in any

appreciable quantity from the forests of Singapore, continues to pour in from the various native states in the peninsula, and forms an extensive item of export. The tree from which it is procured is termed by the Malays the tuban; it is of large size, with wide, spreading branches, and a trunk varying from seven to ten feet in circumference. It bears a fruit at very long intervals, it is believed, but which it is very difficult to obtain. It flourishes luxuriantly in the alluvial tracts which lie between the hill ranges, and forms in many localities the chief foliage of the jungle. Unlike the means adopted by the Burmese to obtain the caoutchouc, the gutta-percha, or tuban tree, is not tapped merely, but cut down and absolutely destroyed to obtain its juice. It is stated that the quantity of juice obtained by tapping the live tree is so small that it would never remunerate the search for it. This is much to be regretted; the tree is of very slow growth, and under the present system, which requires the destruction of ten trees to produce one cwt., the supply must sooner or later fall short from the forests of the peninsula, as it has already done from those in the Island of Singapore.

The Malays obtain the gutta-percha in the following manner:—A full-grown tree, which must be twenty or thirty years of age at least, is cut down and the smaller branches cleared away; round the bark of the trunk and the larger branches, circular incisions are made at a distance from one another of a foot or a foot and a half. Under each of these rings a cocoanut-shell or some other vessel is placed to

receive the juice, which, exuding from round the cut, trickles down and drops from the under part of the tree. In a few days the tree has given forth its life-blood. The juice in the vessels is then collected into pitchers made of the joints of the larger bamboo, and conveyed to the huts of the collectors, where it is placed in a large cauldron and boiled so as to steam off the water which mixes with the juice, and to clear it of impurities. After boiling, it assumes its marketable consistency and is brought in for sale.

The introduction of the article to the world as a merchantable commodity is due to Singapore. About twenty-one years ago attention was directed to the coach-whips and to the various other articles which were hawked about town by the Malays, made of a peculiar elastic gum differing essentially from caoutchouc. Specimens of the gum were sent home, and when its valuable qualities were acknowledged, a search for the tree from which the gum was obtained commenced. At that time the jungles of Singapore were well stocked with them, but they rapidly disappeared before the increased demand for the article, and now very few remain. One of the uses to which it was put by the Malays before it obtained European notice, was in the composition of a sort of bird-lime with which animals as well as birds were captured. The tenacity of this composition is described as something extraordinary, and a story is told of its being used successfully in the capture of a tiger. "A man having been killed by one of these animals, the body was left upon the spot, and a large quantity of this

gutta bird-lime disposed on and about it; all around at a few paces distant the chaff of paddy was thickly strewed, and more bird-lime applied. The animal returned to finish his repast, and his mouth and claws were soon clogged by the bird-lime, while quantities stuck to his body. To get rid of this annoyance he rolled himself in his rage on the chaff, which soon swelled his body to a most portentous bulk; and after having exhausted himself in fruitless exertions, he was easily killed." *

Another commodity which still continues to be produced in considerable quantities in the jungle districts of Singapore, and of the growth of which probably less is known at home than of any other eastern import, is gambier, or terra japonica. As it is brought to the market there, edible gambier resembles in appearance and consistency little square rich blocks of yellow mud, in a half-dry condition, and is as little suggestive of its origin as can possibly be conceived. I have already alluded to the gambier plantations in the interior of the island. They are selected far from town, in the midst of the jungle, and very picturesque little clearings they are. The plants, which are small and bushy, seldom over seven or eight feet high, are planted six feet asunder; the leaves are small, smooth, and of a dark green colour, having an astringent bitter taste. In about fourteen months from the time they are planted the first crop of leaves may be cut, but in about two years' time the plant has attained full

* Related by Colonel Low.

strength, and may be cropped once in two months. The croppings, which consist of leaves and young branches, are gathered together, and thrown into a huge cauldron of hot water, and boiled till all the strength has been extracted; after this, what remains of the twigs and the leaves is withdrawn, and the liquid, which contains a strong decoction, is kept boiling for six or seven hours, till a great part of the water has evaporated, and nothing but a thick, pasty fluid is left behind. This is now poured into shallow troughs, a little more than an inch deep, and allowed to cool and then dry, when it is cut up into little inch blocks, and is then ready for market.

The reason of its being cut up in this manner is twofold—first, to enable it to dry and harden more quickly, and secondly, because in this shape it is better suited to the markets in Siam, Cochin China, and the Archipelago, where it was originally, and still is largely consumed as a masticatory, wrapped with betel-nut in leaves of Siri.

Pepper, that has all along formed such an extensive article of export from the Straits, is still grown in large quantities both at Singapore and Penang; but it does not appear extensively among the products of Malacca. In Singapore it is grown in the same jungle districts as gambier; indeed the cultivation of the two plants generally goes on together, and it is advantageous that it should do so, both because the refuse of the gambier affords an excellent manure for the pepper, and because, the gambier plant not requiring much attendance between the croppings, the labourers of the plantation,

when that work is over, can devote their time to the pepper. The plant, or rather vine, of the pepper is planted more frequently from slips than from seeds. These are set out at distances of ten or twelve feet in regular rows, with props to each slip, up which the young tendrils may creep. These props are cut from a thorny tree strongly tenacious of life, and frequently take root, and thus afford not only a support, but a welcome shade to the young vines. When the slips have been some months planted, and have attained three or four feet in height, their tendrils are detached from the props, and the whole plant bent down and buried a few inches below the surface of the ground. In a short time the buried vine sends up a number of shoots, and the strongest of these are selected and carefully trained up the props.

In appearance of leaf and manner of growth the pepper is a compromise between the common grape vine and the currant plant at home, though the leaves are perhaps a little darker. At the end of each of the first three years a small quantity of pepper is obtained, and in four years the plant may be said to have matured, and yields its full return—probably three or four pounds weight. The berries, which are about the size of a pea, grow in clusters exactly like currants. To produce black pepper, the berries are gathered while green, about a month before they would ripen, and are first exposed to the sun, which causes the soft outer skin to dry up round the little seeds inside, giving the rough, shrivelled-up appearance which the marketable article possesses. They are next con-

veyed to a shed, and placed in a series of sieves over a slow wood fire; this last process appears to give the pepper its black tint.

If white pepper be desired, the berries are allowed to ripen, and become of a beautiful bright red colour; the outer, or fruity skin becomes tender and soft, and is of a sweetish taste. When plucked, the berries are collected in loosely-woven bags, and steeped for a day or two in water, either cold or hot. This serves to loosen and detach the pulpy red skin that covers the seed, and when taken out and dried in the sun, a little hand friction is all that is required to clear the seeds. They are then winnowed, and thus made ready for market. There are some slight differences in the manner of preparing both the dark and white pepper on some plantations; but in the main they resemble that which I have described, which is certainly the most general.

The owners and labourers of both the gambier and pepper plantations in the Island of Singapore are invariably Chinese, and such is generally the case at Penang too. It seems that this section of the population is the only one gifted with that reliant and steady perseverance which will toil on with only a distant reward in view. The Malays encroach upon neither of these occupations; they appear to have a rooted aversion to the culture of any product which requires the least manufacture or manipulation to prepare it for market. To this they add a complete want of enterprise, and seldom attempt culture of any sort on a large or combined plan; indeed, I never heard of a Malay on the island who, on his own

account, regularly hired and paid wages to other labourers. What products they bring to market are the growth of the numerous little homestead gardens in the country districts, where each man with his family labours separately.

The nutmeg still continues to be exported from Singapore, but in very small quantities, and before long its production there will have ceased altogether. It has proved a most disastrous deception to all who have engaged in its culture. Though a wild species is indigenous to many of the islands of the Archipelago, and, it is said, to the forests of the Malay peninsula itself, the nutmeg of commerce was first cultivated and brought to perfection in the Moluccas, by the Portuguese, nearly 300 years ago. The spice riches of those distant islands, held in such a rigid monopoly by the Dutch, into whose hands they fell by conquest in 1605, were long regarded by the English East India Company with the most covetous eye. Despairing of any pretext which might enable them to take forcible possession of the rare gardens of Amboyna and Banda, they determined to rear up rival ones for themselves in their possessions near the Straits of Malacca. Bencoolen was the first station at which the culture of spices was tried. By some means a supply of seeds and young plants both of the nutmeg and clove had been procured from the Moluccas, and they were guarded with great care.

During the first year, the progress of the plants was so promising that it was determined to extend the cultivation to Penang also, and we read that, in

1800, five thousand nutmeg and fifteen thousand clove plants were imported from the Dutch spice islands. In 1802, twenty-five thousand nutmeg seedlings were obtained from the same quarter, and in the latter part of that year, the company's botanist reports that, "up to that time, he had imported in all seventy-one thousand nutmeg and fifty-five thousand clove plants." By what means these large quantities were obtained does not appear, but something more, I think, than diplomacy must have been resorted to. The Dutch authorities, it is true, when an expedition was despatched to the Moluccas about twenty years ago from Singapore, to endeavour to obtain a supply of fresh nutmeg seeds, showed every desire to oblige, and granted much larger supplies than were demanded; but forty years had worked a wonderful change in Dutch policy, and it is well known that at the time these spices were first introduced into Bencoolen and Penang, the Netherlands East India Government would rather have parted with pure gold at once than knowingly have furnished to English rival possessions the germ of a source which to them had proved equal to many a golden mine.

The nutmeg is a very beautiful tree; when of full size, it is about twenty-five or thirty feet high, and, if well formed, should have a diameter from the extremes of its lower branches of little less. It is thickly covered with polished dark green leaves (like those of the bay tree at home), which continue thick and fresh all the year round, one leaf being ready

to take the place of the other as it drops. The blossoms are small, thick, waxy bells, closely resembling in size and form those of the common hyacinth, or lily of the valley. The fruit grows slowly up, and to within a few days of ripening, might be readily mistaken for the peach; it is of the same size, and has the same downy texture of the skin—all it wants to complete the resemblance is the pink cheek. When the nut inside is ripe, the fruit splits down the centre, and remains half open, discovering the bright crimson mace that enshrouds the nut. In a few days, if not gathered in, the fruit opens wider, and the nut, with the mace around it, drops to the ground, leaving the fruity husk still hanging to the tree, till it withers away and falls off. When the nuts are collected, the mace is first carefully removed and placed in the sun to dry. Under the mace is a thin hard shell containing the nutmeg, and this is not broken till the nutmegs are prepared for shipment. A good tree yields 600 nuts per annum, or about 8 lbs. weight. There is no particular season for the nutmeg crop, and the blossoms and the ripe fruit may often be seen hanging together on the same branch. Altogether there are few prettier trees—prettier in form, in foliage, in blossom, and in bearing, than the healthy nutmeg.

The spice gardens both of Bencoolen and Penang remained for the first few years entirely in the hands of the company, though it does not appear that private residents were forbidden to venture upon the cultivation, and long reports used to go home regularly to

Leadenhall-street concerning the number, progress, and prospects of the trees. At Penang the plants were less fortunate than at Bencoolen; many of them died in the second or third year, and half the survivors proved to be male trees, which do not bear. Large sums had been spent, and an expensive botanical staff was still to be maintained; so the directors, tired of an experiment so expensive and so problematical in its results, sent out instructions to sell both the gardens and the plants.

This gave an impetus to private enterprise, and the number of plants and plantations rapidly increased. When Singapore was settled, the fruits of many years' labour and outlay were just beginning to be reaped at Penang. But the outlay had been so great, and the fruits so long delayed, that it was some years before any were found bold enough to adventure upon spice planting in the new settlement. A report, however, which spoke of the soil and the climate as much better suited to the growth of spices than that of Penang, induced a commencement to be made with nutmegs; but it does not appear that cloves were introduced with the view of extensive cultivation. A great many of the disappointments that had been experienced at Penang and Bencoolen were also met with at Singapore, and it was long before the planters obtained any return for their labour and outlay.

When this return did come, however, in Singapore, it was a good one, and promised to be a steady one. The trees grew strong and vigorous, and were fruitful to an extent unknown even in the Moluccas. These

were powerful inducements to hold out in a settlement whose residents had not only grown rich beyond measure, but who had grown attached to the land itself, and were ready and willing to embark in any enterprise that, while likely to be remunerative for the capital invested, tended further to develope its resources. Planting in Singapore now went on with a vengeance. A nutmeg mania seized upon all the landed proprietors. What had been flower gardens and ornamental grounds of private residences were turned over, and nutmegs planted to within a stone's throw of the house walls. Besides this, large tracts of jungle, at a distance of four or five miles from town, were bought up from Government, cleared at great expense, and turned into plantations. Some of these newly reclaimed properties, upon which the young plants looked strong and healthy, changed hands at exorbitant prices.

But all this planting was destined to end in bitter disappointment, and many of those who had adventured on it most boldly were brought near to ruin's doors. Never, perhaps, was there a clearer example of those curses which at times overtake man's industry, apparently unprovoked by his own default. Ere the first trees of the new planting were in fair bearing, a disease showed itself, the nature or origin of which has, as far as I know, defied all conjecture. Beginning at the top of the tree, the leaves would slowly wither off, the twigs and branches whiten and die, and this while the lower part was in apparently vigorous health. The descent from top to bottom was very slow, but

it was very sure; and probably in a year from the first appearance of the blight, nothing remained of the once green, bushy tree but a bleached skeleton. The progress made by this disease upon a plantation was alike strange and unaccountable. It did not commence at one spot, and then extend itself by a gradually widening circle, but generally broke out in several places simultaneously, and this without regard to situation or soil. The trees on the hill-tops and those in the valleys suffered alike. Some plantations decayed more rapidly than others, but in most cases the destruction has been slow, especially with trees that had matured before the disease broke out.

Great efforts were at first made to check it. Trees were rooted out as soon as they showed the first symptoms of decay, and those that remained sound were carefully manured and tended. Sums as great as the original cost of the plantations were expended by many planters in their attempts to overcome the disease. But all was in vain. Slowly but surely tree after tree died away; hope and perseverance were worn out, and disgust and recklessness took their places. Whole plantations were abandoned before half the trees were dead, and the fruit of the good trees left to rot or be picked by any one who took the trouble to look for them. To the present day, so slow has been the decay in plantations that have long since been abandoned and become choked with jungle undergrowth, that the rich green foliage of many a sound, healthy tree may be seen standing out in welcome relief from among the whitened

branches of its dead neighbours. The few nutmegs that are now brought into town and sold, are for the most part the collections made by Malays and Chinese from these half-dead plantations. I only know of one plantation on the island which is still cultivated; it is well inland, but it has lately suffered severely from the blight, and will in all probability soon cease to form an exception to the statement that the cultivation of the nutmeg in Singapore is extinct.

Another extensive product of Singapore, and one which, unlike the nutmeg, is rapidly on the increase, is the cocoanut. It is an article of extensive local consumption, but, as yet, of export only to the neighbouring native states and to Burmah. It is quite possible, however, that before very long oil may be produced in such quantities as to figure in the list of exports to Europe. The tree does not appear to have been indigenous, for none are ever found in the jungle; but, together with the common plantain, must have been introduced by the Malays many centuries ago—probably when they first colonized the island. The natives had never cultivated it to any extent, and for many years after the settlement of the English it was considered too insignificant or too remote a means of acquiring wealth to be embarked in largely. Twenty years ago attention was for the first time directed to its cultivation on an extended scale, and several Europeans bought up large tracts of land along the sea-shore, and systematically commenced to lay them out as cocoanut planta-

tions. These have now been long grown up, and in full bearing, and the richness of the first crops they yielded soon led others to follow in the footsteps of the earlier adventurers. Low-lying lands, formerly considered of no value, have within the last seven or eight years been greedily bought up and covered with young cocoanut plants, which before very long will commence to yield a crop profitable to the planters and valuable to the island.

A cocoanut plantation has altogether a singular appearance. The trees being of one age are of a uniform height, thickness of trunk, and spread of top; they are planted in horizontal lines at equal distances, and growing up straight and perpendicular, present a series of long tall thin grey columns roofed over by green feathery foliage. The trees at maturity attain a height of forty feet, unbroken by a leaf or branch, and rarely inclining more than two or three degrees from the perpendicular; the tops have a spread of about twenty-five feet in diameter, and, as the trees are seldom planted further apart than thirty feet, their foliage forms nearly an unbroken canopy, shading the ground below. The nuts grow in clusters between the roots of the leaves or branches at the top, in all conditions of ripeness. If not picked when ripe they drop, and even with careful picking many nuts are lost by dropping and being broken on the ground. Indeed, in a large plantation the noise of the falling nuts and the dead old branches strangely breaks the silence that reigns around. The force with which they fall is considerable,—sufficient, if they alight on

the head, to kill a man of ordinarily thick skull, and I have thought it remarkable that no deaths should have happened from this cause,—at least, I have never heard of a single case. This is especially remarkable among the native villages, which are thickly crowded with cocoanut-trees, under the shade of which the huts repose, and the little black children play about from morning to night.

The annual produce of a full-grown plantation is almost 100 nuts per tree, and these are yielded not all at one crop, but steadily throughout the year, the trees being examined and the ripe nuts picked every ten days. For oil, and for most other purposes, the nuts are allowed to ripen, but a young cocoanut plucked before the husk thickens, and when the milk contains most of the nutriment, affords a most agreeable and wholesome drink, and often takes the place of soda-water in a brandy compound, especially at picnics. The method at present in use in the Straits for extracting the oil is exceedingly primitive, and must, I think, sooner or later give way to machinery. The nuts are simply husked, broken, and the kernel taken out, and then rubbed by the hand against a grater until reduced to a pulp, which is afterwards boiled till all the watery particles are evaporated, after which it is passed through strainers, and the refuse cast away. The oil is then allowed to stand and purify before it is brought into market.

I shall have to notice, when I come to treat of Penang and Malacca separately, some products which, though grown at these two stations more extensively,

are, nevertheless, cultivated in Singapore as well. Among these are the sugar-cane, tapioca, coffee, and paddy: but for the reason stated I need not allude to them here. There are others besides too insignificant in their value to require to be particularized at all. As I said at starting, the soil and the climate together are capable of producing in luxuriance almost every intertropical plant or tree; and no doubt as time goes on, and as experiments, even already commenced, become realized, we may expect to find the list of staple products far increased beyond the narrow limits to which these observations have been confined. I find also another reason for not allowing myself greater range here, in the fact that in the list of products and fruits which will be found in the Appendix, I give an array sufficiently long and minute to satisfy, if not to fatigue, the most curious inquirer.

CHAPTER VII.

COMMERCE: SINGAPORE — PENANG — MALACCA.

Nature of the Trade of Singapore—Its rapid Progress—Comparative Progress of the three Stations—Imports at Singapore from different Countries—Their Character—Singapore Exports—Of what they consist—Number and Nationalities of Vessels arrived during the Year at the Port of Singapore—Future Commercial Policy—Imports at Penang—Sumatra Produce—Exports from Penang—They exceed the Imports—Number and Nationality of Ships arrived at Penang during the Year—Imports and Exports of Malacca—Tin, the chief Export—Royalty reserved by Government—Concluding Remarks on the Commerce of the Straits of Malacca.

THE commercial prosperity of Singapore has been steadily progressive from the first year of the settlement, and there seems no good reason to believe that it has yet reached its extreme limit. But it may be well, at the very outset, to put prominently forward the fact, that, comparatively speaking, the island neither produces nor manufactures. It neither grows to any extent the products it exports, nor much improves or renders marketable those which pass through it; and it is in the measure of careful regard to be paid by our legislators to these circumstances and their consequences that we must look for

the future advance or retrogression of the trade of Singapore. So evenly balanced are the causes which at present affect favourably or otherwise the commerce of this entrepôt, that the slightest burden thrown in the scales against it, would sink it, it might be irrevocably, below the reach of the current of prosperity. The two great advantages that at the beginning drew the trade of the East towards Singapore, were—first, the central and convenient position of the station; and, second, the entire exemption from commercial imposts or taxes on trade, at a time when the Dutch in the neighbourhood drew their chief revenue from import and export duties, and when even the Company themselves had no other free port. The first of these advantages still remains, and must continue to remain, in its favour; the second exists, too, but in a qualified degree. The port is still as exempt of trade restrictions* as it was at its foundation, but it does not now possess this exemption singly; our policy has been, at length, widely copied by our Dutch neighbours, who have scattered half-a-dozen free ports over the Archipelago, one of which is only sixty-three miles distant from Singapore. These Dutch ports, it is true, have not robbed the Straits of much of its old trade, but they have certainly deflected a good deal of that which, in their absence, would doubtless have reached it, especially towards the south-east of the Archipelago; and they remain ready at any moment to

* The stamp tax imposed nearly two years ago can, I think, scarcely be said to be a trade restriction, at least of the port; and the ease with which it has worked, proves that it is not severely felt.

engulph all that may be driven from it by restrictive legislation.

The gradual increase of the imports and exports of Singapore from 1,200,000*l.* of the former, and 950,000*l.* of the latter, in 1823, to 6,500,000*l.* and 5,500,000*l.* respectively, forty years afterwards, in 1863, is owing in a large measure to the development of the native states around it, to the extension of their knowledge of and taste for British manufactures on the one hand; and, on the other, to their anxiety to derive from the cultivation of their soil, and from the free products of their forests, the means to obtain them. Undoubtedly this development may, and indeed must, reach a limit when it will cease to benefit Singapore. Native ports, whose earlier trade was conducted in junks, will, under the impulse given by the new-felt wants of the people and their newly-devised means to satisfy them, grow in importance till they become the resorts of large shipping and have direct intercourse with Europe. We have already had this illustrated in the case of Borneo and Siam. But so vast is the population of the Archipelago and of the native states on the eastern continent, that, as one port is withdrawn from the supply of Singapore, another will be ready to take its place; and this must go on for the next century at least, provided always we keep its port completely open and trade unfettered.

Singapore, however, has a large trade quite independent of the native states that through it may draw their supplies and transmit their produce. It arises

from the central position of the island, and is carried on between Calcutta, Burmah, Java, and China; consisting chiefly of imports from the two first, and of exports to the two latter. It is not at all unusual in England to send goods to Singapore which are ultimately intended either for China or Java, because doing so gives the choice of two or three markets. If on arrival there, the goods are low in China but high in Java, they are of course sent on to the latter port, and *vice versâ;* or, if both in China and Java they are unsaleable, there is still the chance of Siam, Saigon, and Borneo.

The same course is adopted with the opium and rice of India. Fully one-half of the opium, and more than three-fourths of the grain that comes down to Singapore from India is consumed in China; and a large portion besides goes to Java. There is, undoubtedly, as little difficulty in procuring freight from India to China, as there is from India to the Straits, and the cost of direct shipment is always considerably less; still, to take the chances of the several markets, obtained through Singapore, is found the most profitable course.

This trade, as I have said, has not had its origin in the insignificance of the ports with which it is carried on, nor can it be adversely affected by their future growth and prosperity. It appears to me, too, that, as the native markets around grow into an importance deserving direct intercourse with Europe, they will come to rank in the trade of Singapore as

the ports of China, Java, and Siam do now. The only peril to this part of our commerce is too clear to be mistaken. As long as the port of Singapore remains free of tonnage dues, or of harbour dues, as long as bonded warehouses are unnecessary because of its freedom from import or export duties,—in point of fact, as long as ships can enter and leave its harbour at will, and goods can be landed and shipped at no cost beyond the cooly and boat hire—so long need we fear no diminution of what might be termed its inter-colonial trade. Singapore has grown too great to fear any rivalry on equal terms. It has paled the ineffectual fires of the Dutch, while it keeps down and makes subservient to itself the commercial ardour of the French at Saigon. But as surely as any attempt is made to tax its imports or its exports, or to burden its port with any tonnage or harbour due, that moment the ebb of its commercial greatness begins.

Though I have directed these observations to Singapore only, they have also, in a smaller degree, application to Penang. To Malacca as yet they have none; nor does it seem likely that they ever will have. But, as the three settlements form one colony, it is desirable that a comprehensive view of the whole should be given, and I propose first to estimate the commercial condition of them together, before passing on to the separate consideration of each. In order to shew, without entering at present into details, that, however varied the degree, the trade of each of the settlements has been progressive, I may refer

to the following table, which I have accurately prepared, of the imports and exports during the years 1833–43–53 and 63:—

Date.	—	Singapore.	Penang and P. W.	Malacca.
		£	£	£
1833	Imports	2,043,000	427,000	104,000
	Exports	1,705,000	440,000	58,000
	Total	3,748,000	867,000	162,000
1843	Imports	2,953,000	473,000	95,000
	Exports	2,595,000	549,000	62,000
	Total	5,548,000	1,022,000	157,000
1853	Imports	3,488,000	725,000	299,000
	Exports	3,027,000	962,000	218,000
	Total	6,515,000	1,687,000	517,000
1863	Imports	6,462,000	1,684,000	453,000
	Exports	5,555,000	2,392,000	360,000
	Total	12,017,000	4,076,000	813,000

	£
Gross total for 1833	4,777,000
„ „ 1843	6,727,000
„ „ 1853	8,719,000
„ „ 1863	16,906,000

or, summed up, a business for the joint settlements of four millions and three quarters in 1833, of six millions and three quarters in 1843, of eight millions and three quarters in 1853, and of no less than seventeen millions in the year that has just closed. It

will be found on examination, that the trade of both Penang and Malacca as shown in these four periods has progressed proportionately by even a greater ratio than that of Singapore—for whereas the latter has been a little more than trebled, the two former have been multiplied, the one four and a half, and the other five-fold.

The magnitude of the amount in the one case, however, is now such as to involve a tremendous body of trade in any proportional alteration of the figures. And if we go ten years further back, say to 1823, with Singapore and Penang, and to 1825 (the date of our final occupation) with Malacca, and estimate the progress of the respective stations since then, we shall find the retrospect considerably less favourable to the two latter. It will be found that from 1823 to the present time, the trade of Penang has barely multiplied itself three and a half times, and that of Malacca, since 1825, has progressed in no better proportion, while that of Singapore has increased seven-fold.

But it is satisfactory to gather, at the same time, that however rapid and gigantic the progress made by Singapore, it has not involved, as has frequently been asserted, a retrograde movement on the part of the other stations; on the contrary, I believe that the continued prosperity of the younger settlement has been, and will be the strongest stimulus to the trade of the other two.

So much for the commercial progress of the three

stations of the new colony. It will now be necessary to consider the present condition of each apart. The imports of Singapore for the year ending 30th April, 1863, have been from the following countries, and of the values placed opposite each :—

IMPORTS.

	£
Great Britain	1,500,758
North America	30,222
Europe	388,099
Australia	32,006
Calcutta	699,832
Madras	32,256
Bombay	35,590
China	902,922
Cochin China	163,722
Siam	242,093
Manila	26,599
Java, Rhio, &c.	939,174
Borneo	133,096
Celebes	112,616
Sumatra	109,933
Malayan Peninsula	170,503
Miscellaneous, including Malacca, Penang, and British Burmah	942,299
Total	6,461,720

To give a complete and exact analysis of these extensive imports would occupy too great a space, and prove of comparatively small value. I shall, however, briefly enumerate the chief articles which make up the sums respectively standing opposite each country; and with regard to Great Britain, British India, China and Java, where the amounts are so considerable, I shall be more particular.

1.—The principal imports from Great Britain for the period embraced in the table above I have carefully

gone over, and for the sake of brevity have tabulated the principal items as under :—

	£
Treasure	300,716
Cotton Manufactures	717,320
Woollens	47,160
Beer	14,443
Wines	10,327
Arms and Ammunition	57,375
Iron and Ironwork	73,496
Copper and Yellow Metal	29,988
Lead	22,571
Earthenware	18,539
Canvas, &c	18,392

Besides these, there is a long list of miscellaneous articles which, though amounting together to a considerable value, are individually considered of small importance. Of the cotton manufactures, arms and gunpowder imported, only a very small proportion is for the use of the Straits, the former find their way all over the Archipelago—the two latter both to the Archipelago, and, until very lately, in great quantities to China. The other articles particularized are consumed in greater degree in the Straits, but still the bulk of these, too, is re-exported.

2, 3.—From North America and Europe the imports partake very much of the nature of those from Great Britain, with the exception of ice, which is supplied from the former, and need not therefore be more than stated at their gross values in the general table.

4.—Australia furnishes chiefly horses, bread-stuffs, coals from the mines at New South Wales, and sandal-wood from Western Australia.

5, 6, 7.—From Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay the imports have aggregated very nearly a million sterling. I tabulate together the principal items from the three presidencies, simply remarking that the opium and grain are chiefly supplied from Calcutta.

	£
Opium	590,349
Grain	46,252
Saltpetre	7,368
Gunnie Bags	24,782

Cotton in former years also formed a considerable article of import from India, but since the American war this importation has altogether ceased. The opium that is landed here finds its way to Java and the Archipelago, Siam, and Cochin China, about thirty-five or forty chests a month, or 60,000*l.* worth annually, being the consumption of Singapore itself. Saltpetre is sent on to China and Java. The other articles are to a considerable extent consumed in the Straits.

8.—The imports from China more than equal those from British India, amounting to 902,921*l.* They chiefly consisted of,—

	£
Gold Bars and Dust	205,515
Sycee Silver and Dollars	63,506
China Cash	18,450
Sugar	15,167
Tea	41,233
Camphor	43,405
Cassia	12,371
Alum	3,262
Raw Thread Silk	35,574
Tobacco	60,444

Many of these articles are sent on to Europe or America. China cash, 1,200 pieces of which go to

the dollar, is sent down to the islands of the Archipelago to purchase rice and other native products. It is the only coin below the dollar which is current throughout the Archipelago, and being suitable to the payment of very small sums is never likely to be superseded. I believe it has been frequently tried in Birmingham to produce an imitation of these, but it was found impossible to obtain a similar metal at anything like the price.

9.—From Cochin China the imports have chiefly consisted of rice; but of late years, since the French occupation, the quantity has fallen very much below the old standard. Sticlac and bee's-wax are also articles of import from Cochin China.

10.—Siam imports, like those of Cochin China, chiefly consist of rice, but instead of being on the decline, the trade in this staple is progressing steadily. Sticlac, horns, and hides, are the other principal items.

11.—From Manila the largest imports are of tobaccos and sugars; partly for consumption in the Straits, and partly for re-exportation home, and to British India.

12.—The imports from the Dutch ports in Java, Rhio, &c., are very considerable, amounting to close upon a million sterling. The chief items were to the following values :—

	£
Treasure	588,905
Tobacco	64,074
Rice	45,861
Pepper	38,861
Gambier	24,443
Coffee	20,382
Cottons	30,858
Birds'-Nests	11,349

Beside these, there are cloves, cassia, cinnamon, and other spices. Nearly all of the pepper, gambier, and coffee finds its way to Europe. The rice and birds'-nests are partly consumed in the Straits, and partly sent on to China.

13.—From Borneo, the principal imports were unprepared sago, antimony ore, rattans, gutta-percha, from Sarawak, and coals from Labuan. The sago, as it is landed from Borneo, is simply the pith of the sago palm, scraped out and packed in small baskets; it is washed out, dressed, and prepared for the European market by the Chinese manufacturers in Singapore, who were the first to introduce the method of pearling, which has done so much to render it an article of consumption. In the notice of Malacca is an account of a tapioca manufactory. The processes are nearly similar. All the imports from Borneo, except coals, find their way to Europe; the coals are now being consumed by many of the steamers in the trade between India and China; but I believe they are too bituminous, and would be better suited for gas.

14.—The imports from the island of Celebes, which is the fifth in magnitude of the Archipelago, consist chiefly of sandal-wood, sapan-wood, coffee, and gutta-percha, the products of the island, and of mother-of-pearl, bartered for with the natives of New Guinea and other islands to the south-east of the Archipelago. Birds'-nests and a small quantity of bee's-wax also form items of importation from Celebes. The former are obtained at great risk of life from the caves along the rocky coasts of the surrounding islands; the latter

is gathered from the forests of the interior without much difficulty, as the wild bees of the Archipelago build their hives like wasps at home, dropping from the branches of the large trees.

15.—From Sumatra, which is just on the other side of the Straits, opposite our own possessions, the more extensive articles of import are pepper, sago (raw), coffee, gutta-percha, gum benjamin, gum mastic, and ivory. Of pepper only a comparatively small quantity comes to Singapore, Penang being a much more convenient market to most of the native ports. Ivory comes also in small supplies, but it is said that the number of elephants on the island is decreasing.

16.—The imports stated as from the Malayan peninsula, do not include those from our own possessions in the Straits. They consist chiefly of rice, gutta-percha, and tin; but also include small supplies of ivory horns, hides, and birds'-nests.

17.—Under the head miscellaneous, in the general table, are included the imports from Penang, Malacca, and British Burmah. From Penang the imports are greatly speculative, and fluctuate according as prices may rise or fall at either port. From Malacca the chief imports are tin and tapioca, the former to the value of 388,357*l*. From British Burmah the imports are almost altogether made up of rice.

I now come to the exports for the same period as I have given the imports, that is, from the 1st of May, 1862, to the 30th of April, 1863; and as I began in the one case by giving a general table of the gross

values of the imports from the various countries, I will pursue the same course with the exports. These have been—

	£
Great Britain	652,217
North America	48,448
Europe	79,006
Australia	21,138
Calcutta	810,103
Madras	43,395
Bombay	137,085
China	1,249,137
Cochin China	323,992
Siam	325,254
Manila	19,620
Java, Rhio, &c.	557,490
Borneo	137,521
Celebes	90,317
Sumatra	72,489
Malayan Peninsula	197,858
Miscellaneous, including Malacca, Penang and British Burmah	790,503
Total	5,555,573

What they have consisted of may be gathered in a great measure from the table of imports. But a more particular inquiry may be useful.

1.—To Great Britain the chief articles of exportation during the year have been,—

	£
Gambier	133,740
Tin	29,846
Sago	68,101
Tapioca	5,200
Black Pepper	109,549
Tortoise Shell	2,825
Mother-o'-Pearl	7,583
Gutta-Percha	103,606
Nutmegs and Mace	3,358
Camphor	17,170
White Pepper	18,318

Gum Elastic	£14,110
Coffee	47,355
Sapan-Wood	2,369
Sticlac	16,966
Rattans	4,278

Of these, gambier, black and white pepper, and nutmegs are the only articles of production on the island, and then only to about one-half of the value exported—gambier being also received in considerable quantities from Java, pepper from Sumatra, and nutmegs and mace from the Moluccas. Sago is imported in the raw state from Borneo and Sumatra, and manufactured here before exportation. Tin comes chiefly from Malacca, and the Native States of the Peninsula. Tortoiseshell and mother-o'-pearl from the far east of the Archipelago; gutta-percha from all over the Archipelago and Peninsula; camphor from China; coffee chiefly from Java and Sumatra; sapan-wood from Celebes, and sticlac from Siam and Cochin China.

2.—The exports to North America have been chiefly of gambier, pepper, gutta-percha, and rattans.

3.—To the continent of Europe the exports have been very nearly of the same character as those sent to Great Britain; but of course in considerably smaller quantities.

4.—The exports to Australia have consisted chiefly of tea, coffee, and sugar—the products probably of China and Java—and of pepper grown here.

5.—To Calcutta the exports exceed in value those to Great Britain, Europe and America put together, but this is owing almost entirely to the large amount

of treasure which they include, as will be seen from the following table of the chief items :—

	£
Treasure	587,704
Sapan-Wood	3,544
Pepper	16,402
Cotton Goods	142,466
Camphor	10,971

Next to treasure, in this table, comes the exportation of piece-goods, which has been owing greatly to speculative ventures induced by the American war. The camphor exported comes from China. Besides these, are many other articles in smaller quantities, among which is Japan copper.

6, 7.—To Bombay and Madras the exports have chiefly been of treasure, cotton goods (speculative ventures), sugar, Japan copper, sapan-wood, articles of import from other countries—and nutmegs, pepper, and tin the products of the Straits.

8. The export trade to China has exceeded that to any other country, reaching nearly to a million and a quarter sterling. The chief items are,—

	£
Arms and Ammunition	35,731
Cotton Goods	135,872
Treasure	58,091
Rice	170,333
Rattans	35,183
Beech de mer	16,817
Birds'-Nests	33,977
Sapan and other Woods	33,472
Pepper	52,767
Betel-nut	12,837
Tin	299,455
Opium	144,656

The arms, ammunition and cotton goods are those which have first been imported from Europe. The

opium is, with the exception of a small quantity of Turkey, the product of India. The rice is that of Burmah, Java and Siam. Rattans, beech de mer, sapan-wood, and birds'-nests are from the islands of the Archipelago. Pepper, betel-nut, and a great portion of the tin, are, on the other hand, the products of the Straits.

9, 10.—To Cochin China and Siam, the exports are similar in kind as they also are in amount. The manufactured cotton of Europe, the opium of India, and treasure for the purchase of produce are the principal items.

11.—The exports to Manila are insignificant, and are made up of sundry small articles of European manufacture, and of opium.

12. To Java, Rhio, &c., the exports are considerable, consisting chiefly of the following :—

	£
Treasure	165,146
Opium	120,740
Cotton Goods	66,637
Silks	39,129
Rice	58,665

By reference to the imports previously stated, it will be found that both treasure and rice are received at Singapore in large quantities from Java; and it certainly seems strange that they should here form such a considerable proportion of the exports to that country. Treasure, however, is subject to such fluctuation, and is so easily affected in value by the arbitrary rates of exchange which are from time to time imposed, that its shipment to and fro is almost

a natural consequence. Rice is more generally an article of import from, than export to, Java; but the severe floods that from time to time desolate that country, create temporary scarcities which have to be supplied from abroad. The opium is from India, the cotton goods from Great Britain, and the silks from China.

13.—To Borneo, the exports which amounted to 137,521*l.*, consisted chiefly of cotton goods, treasure, opium, rice and tobacco.

14.—To Celebes they have consisted principally of cotton goods, opium and gambier, which is eaten with the siri plant.

15.—The exports to Sumatra have been cotton manufactures, treasure, opium, and rice in small quantities.

16.—To the Malayan Peninsula, the exports have been very varied; but the following are the largest items:—

	£
Cotton Goods	40,361
Opium	58,759
Treasure	62,830
Silks	10,059
Rice	3,628

17.—Under the head of misçellaneous are included the exports to Penang, Malacca, British Burmah, and some other parts. The bulk of this part of our trade consists of transhipment and speculative exports to Penang, and the entire supply of Malacca which, with very trifling exceptions, comes through Singapore.

These are the chief exports of Singapore. The imports I have already considered; but as it may assist materially in arriving at a distinct understanding of the trade of the port, I propose to give the number of vessels which have arrived throughout the year, with their tonnage and the places from which they come. Of the junks and trading prahus which frequent the port, no very reliable records are kept; but about 200 arrive annually, and it is estimated that they carry about an eighth part, in value, of the yearly trade. The square-rigged vessels which arrived at Singapore from the 1st May, 1862, to the 30th, 1863, were—

From	No.	Tonnage.	From	No.	Tonnage.
Africa	2	273	Brought forward.	654	307,328
America	15	10,594	Hamburg	26	6,961
Amsterdam	7	2,740	Java	175	46,029
Arabia	3	2,005	Madras and coast	7	2,669
Arracan	4	3,048	Malacca	13	1,786
Australia	25	10,414	Malay Peninsula	25	5,637
Bally	15	3,120	Malta	3	3,902
Bombay and coast	47	37,784	Manila	9	4,545
Borneo	75	10,923	Mauritius	10	6,200
Bremen	3	1,000	Moulmein	5	1,904
Calcutta	58	33,999	New Zealand	3	1,803
Cape of Good Hope	7	7,229	Penang	175	36,924
Celebes	16	2,327	Rangoon	45	15,659
Ceylon	9	5,553	Rhio	5	1,422
China	213	100,593	Siam	116	31,119
Cochin China	64	26,556	Spain	1	1,301
France	15	5,915	Sumatra	5	1,018
Great Britain	76	43,245	Tringanu and coast	2	214
Carried forward..	654	307,328	Total	1,279	471,441

The nationalities of these one thousand two hundred and seventy-nine vessels were :—

—	No.	Tonnage.	—	No.	Tonnage.
American	81	61,240	Brought ford	590	224,462
Arabian	6	2,504	Oldenburg	1	616
Belgian	1	800	Portuguese	9	2,347
Bremen	23	11,372	Prussian	4	865
Chinese	2	290	Russian	4	2,023
Danish	30	7,151	Spanish	5	2,170
Dutch	279	70,401	Siamese	54	15,549
French	74	43,041	Swedish	4	2,583
Hamburg	58	22,310			
Hanoverian	4	1,103		671	250,615
Native States	29	3,181	British	608	220,826
Norwegian	3	1,069			
Carried forward..	590	224,462	Total	1,279	471,441

Such is the actual trade of Singapore, and such the channels through which it is conveyed. It will not be difficult to gather, from a comparison of the imports with the exports, confirmation of what was pointed out at starting, namely, that the consumption of the island is insignificant as compared with its imports, and that its production is even more disproportioned to its exports. It may be roundly stated that 90 per cent. of the European manufactures and Indian produce which are landed there, are again re-slipped further eastward, and that not 5 per cent. of the products exported to Great Britain, America, the Continent of Europe, and India, are of local

growth or manufacture. To no other port in the world therefore can the designation of entrepôt be more justly applied; and with this important fact, and all its consequences prominently before their eyes, it is impossible that either local or imperial legislators can ever seek to encumber its free trade without being guilty of the most wilful disregard of the national interests.

And it must be borne in mind that imposts which would produce no damaging effect upon the trade of a European port, might have the most fatal effect upon the trade of Singapore. A harbour due, a tonnage due, wharfage or anchorage charges, are all fair enough means of reimbursing a Government for its outlay on harbour improvements and facilities, and are ordinarily understood and willingly acquiesced in. But at Singapore it is very different. The native traders are men altogether unable to distinguish the causes of a particular impost, and fly from them all as from oppression; besides this, they know nothing of our language or of our rules and regulations, and would possibly have to entrust the agency of their shipping business to some sharper of their own nationality, who might practise fraud and extortion on them to any extent.

The port of Singapore must not only be free from burden, but the forms of business must be maintained as plain and simple as possible.

Of the commerce of Penang and Malacca I am unable to give the same details as I have given of that of Singapore, and must deal more generally.

The imports at Penang for the year 1862–63 were from the following countries and to the values opposite each :—

IMPORTS.

	£
Great Britain	117,960
North America	4,350
Europe	26,956
Calcutta	197,741
Madras	52,574
Bombay	7,074
China	84,519
Siam	275,343
Sumatra	172,133
Malayan Peninsula	98,582
Miscellaneous, including Singapore, Malacca, and British Burmah	647,366
Total	£1,684,598

In kind they do not differ materially from those of Singapore. From Great Britain, America, and Europe, the imports are comparatively insignificant—the manufactures of these countries for the greater part finding their way through Singapore, the imports from which amount to fully a third of the gross values from all the other countries put together. It will be seen, that the imports from Sumatra, consisting chiefly of pepper, are nearly double the value of those received from the same country at Singapore; but they are nevertheless considerably smaller than they were in previous years. This falling off is attributed to the policy of the Dutch, who, it is suspected, are pushing their way in Sumatra somewhat unfairly. By the treaty between England and Holland of 1824 we evacuated our possession of Bencoolen, and gave up all right and title which we might have to the

island of Sumatra to the Dutch, receiving Malacca and the hitherto disputed supremacy of the Malay peninsula in return. But by the 3rd article of that treaty it was stipulated that no fresh treaties should be made by either power with the native princes of the respective territories, exclusive of the trade of the other, or imposing unequal duties thereupon. It is strongly suspected, however, that exclusive treaties have notwithstanding been lately made by the Dutch in Sumatra—and the suspicion receives confirmation not only from the diminished imports of that island's produce at Penang, but from various reports, more or less reliable, from the native princes themselves. All the protests, however, which may be made by the Straits' merchants in the dark, must, from the terms of the treaty of 1824, be unavailing; but it is certainly high time that the Government of the Hague should be asked for copies of whatever treaties their East Indian authorities may have concluded in Sumatra. Copies of these the Netherlands Government is bound to furnish in terms of the 3rd article of the treaty of 1824, and if they are found to be restrictive of our trade, they should be at once disavowed. If, on the other hand, the terms are consonant to all the articles of the old treaty, copies of them should be placed in the hands of the Straits authorities, that their true intent and meaning may be made known to the traders who still flock into the English ports in the Straits, and thus be disseminated throughout the produce districts of Sumatra.

From Siam the imports, which exceed those from

the same country to Singapore, have consisted chiefly of rice, a great portion of which crosses over for consumption to Province Wellesley and the Native States on the north-west coast of the Peninsula.

The exports from Penang for the same period as I have given the imports, were as under:—

EXPORTS.

	£
Great Britain	453,623
North America	111,026
Europe	51,153
Calcutta	101,667
Madras	36,687
Bombay	13,228
China	155,046
Siam	253,155
Sumatra	310,496
Malayan Peninsula	236,562
Miscellaneous, including Singapore, Malacca, and British Burmah	669,466
Total (sterling)	£2,392,109

It will be seen that while in Singapore the exports fall short in value of the imports, in Penang they are nearly one-half more. There is also this difference between the ports, that while in Singapore the local consumption and the local production are quite insignificant as compared with its imports and exports; in Penang, on the other hand, the imports are, with some trifling exceptions, consumed on the island, in Province Wellesley, or in the adjacent Native States, and the exports are entirely the production of the same territories.

To Great Britain, America, and the Continent of Europe, as indeed to most of the countries named

above, the chief articles of export are pepper, gambier, nutmegs, and sugar. The cultivation of pepper is not so extensive as it was in former years, and owing to the blight which has extended all over the Straits, it is probable that nutmegs will before very long cease altogether to be exported. The production of the other articles, especially of sugar in Province Wellesley, appears to be on the increase. Cotton is produced in small quantities, but according to the best authorities it is never likely to become a staple article of export. Indigo and nilam have also at times been exported in small quantities, and cocoanuts, siri, and betel-nut (the nuts of the Areca palm, or Penang tree, from which the island takes its name), are produced in tolerably large quantities, but chiefly consumed in the ports of the Straits.

The arrivals of square-rigged vessels in Penang have been for the years 1862–63 :—

From	No.	Tonnage.	From	No.	Tonnage.
America	3	1,373	Brought ford	98	44,404
Amsterdam	1	300	Great Britain	15	6,767
Arabia	8	4,048	Goa	2	607
Arracan	15	4,164	Hamburg	2	1,040
Australia	2	1,522	Madras and coast	31	7,043
Bombay and coast	12	6,574	Malacca	8	1,085
Bremen	1	238	Moulmein	21	2,991
Calcutta	17	9,188	Rangoon	94	9,848
Coringa	5	953	Siam	10	1,339
Ceylon	6	2,292	Spain	1	216
China	24	12,393	Singapore	177	54,591
France	3	1,259	Sumatra	56	6,603
Carried forward..	98	44,404	Total	514	136,434

Their nationalities being :—

—	No.	Tonnage.	—	No.	Tonnage.
American	13	7,999	Brought ford	54	22,815
Arabian	6	3,680	Hamburg	4	1,670
Belgian	1	444	Native States	11	925
Bremen	5	1,200	Portuguese	15	4,578
Danish	3	758	Siamese	5	422
Dutch	11	2,329	British	425	106,015
French	15	6,414	Total	514	136,434
Carried forward..	54	22,815			

The proportion of trade carried by junks and native prahus is even greater at Penang than at Singapore.

The trade of Malacca, which at one time might be said to comprise the sum of European intercourse with the far East, is now comparatively unimportant. But the decline has not been under British rule; on the contrary, since our final acquisition of the territory, the trade, as will be seen on reference to the comparisons made at the beginning of this chapter, has steadily progressed. Still, however, the commerce of Malacca is far from satisfactory and far from what it might be. The imports for 1862–63 were :—

Imports.

	£
Calcutta	1,950
China	713
Sumatra	8,217
Malayan Peninsula	81,894
Jeddah	—
British Burmah	3,050
Miscellaneous, including Singapore and Penang	356,830
Total (sterling)	£452,654

The exports on the other hand were :—

	£
Calcutta	—
China	—
Sumatra	15,228
Malayan Peninsula	61,752
Jeddah	18
British Burmah	1,744
Miscellaneous, including Singapore and Penang	281,098
Total (sterling)	£359,840

The arrivals of square-rigged vessels at Malacca for the same year have been :—

From	No.	Tonnage.	From	No.	Tonnage.
Arabia	2	1,284	Brought ford	92	16,331
Bombay	2	794	Rangoon	8	1,962
Calcutta	4	1,626	Singapore	152	26,733
Ceylon	1	192	Sumatra	2	284
Penang	83	12,435	Total	254	45,310
Carried forward.	92	16,331			

Their nationalities :—

	No.	Tonnage.
American	1	369
Arabian	6	3,954
Dutch	3	619
Native States	3	210
Portuguese	1	220
British	240	39,940
Total	254	45,312

The number of junks trading to Malacca is not large.

It will be seen that the amount of the exports of produce is a fourth less than that of the imports ; and this, for such a possession as Malacca, must I

think be deemed an unwholesome state of trade. With an extensive tract of territory and a soil not only fertile but rich in mineral wealth, and a numerous population, the station is still unable to return to Singapore produce sufficient to pay for the value of the manufactures and other goods imported from it. The articles of import to Malacca consist chiefly of cotton manufactures and opium, received through Singapore and Penang; its exports are chiefly of tin, tapioca, and sago, besides fruit, fowls, and live stock, which, though they do not appear among the exports, are pretty regularly supplied to Singapore by a fleet of small schooners plying between the two ports. It was for many years thought that the prosperity of this station was retarded by the unsatisfactory nature of the land tenure, but about three years ago a new land bill was introduced which entirely removed whatever objections had previously been thought to exist, and yet no extension of cultivation resulted. Perhaps as tin is the chief article of export, the royalty on metal still reserved to the Crown should be abandoned, with a view to the further development of the metallurgic resources of the station.

Such is a brief epitome of the trade of the Straits. I have been careful that all the figures which I have given should be accurate and reliable, and for this purpose have taken the sum of the entries during the years indicated at the import and export offices of the three stations. But as there is no law to compel correct entries being made, or rather to punish those who neglect to make such, it is more than probable that these

returns fall somewhat short of the actual trade; especially so with that portion in the hands of native merchants. But gauged even by these records, the commerce of the Straits of Malacca assumes a magnitude which, resting as it does on but a precarious foundation, entitles it to all the solicitude which I have claimed for it at the outset of this chapter. The prosperity and progress of no country ever lay so completely at the mercy of its rulers. It is possible by one year of port imposts utterly to ruin the settlement; it is also possible by a liberal, enlightened, completely free-trade policy not only to maintain its present prosperity, but to make its progress keep pace with the development of the countries around it.

CHAPTER VIII.

GOVERNMENT: REVENUE—EXPENDITURE—MILITARY DEFENCE.

Past Government—Present Administration—Supréme Court—Sources of Revenue—Farming System—Its Advantages—Government Farms—Opium Farm—Its Morality—Toddy and Baang, Spirit, and Pawnbrokers' Farms—Expedience of a Gambling Farm—Its Value—Evils of the present Attempt to restrict the Vice—Land Revenue—Stamp Tax—Municipal Revenue—General Expenditure—Public Works—Government Salaries—Military Expenditure and Strength—Fortifications of Singapore—Their Faults—Advantages of a Sea Defence—Singapore a Naval and Military Depôt—Evils of a Local Corps or Local Marine.

Of the past Government of Singapore and the Straits Settlement very little need be said; and that little not all evil. Doubtless, the affairs of the Straits have occupied but a small share in the deliberations of the Council of India, and have systematically been set aside to give place to the more pressing and the undoubtedly more important concerns of the Continental empire itself. The causes of this neglect were manifold. The Straits formed an outlying station fifteen hundred miles away from Calcutta, of a completely different character from India itself, unaffected alike by its prosperity or misfortune. The races by

whom it was peopled were numerous and distinct, chiefly gathered together by immigration since it became a British possession, from whom no revolt was to be anticipated, and on whose account therefore was no anxiety felt for the safety of the settlement. Besides all this, the legislators of India being entirely ignorant themselves of what could benefit or what would injure the Straits, and unwilling to trust too implicitly to the representations of the individual whom they from time to time placed there as Governor, preferred pretty well to refrain from legislating altogether.

It must be admitted, however, that at no time has the Indian Government sought to derive a profit out of the Straits. The most it has done was to endeavour to raise the revenue to a sum sufficient to cover the military as well as the civil expenditure, and though the former is not a just charge to impose upon the Straits, not at least to its full extent, still it is one for the cost of which the Indian Exchequer has every right to be refunded. For protection against internal revolt the military are not needed, and if retained for any other purpose the cost of their support ought to be matter for adjustment with the Imperial Government, not a charge upon India. But, not to anticipate, it is only in the last year, 1863-64, that the endeavour has really been carried out, and that the revenue has been raised by fresh taxation, in the shape of a stamp duty, to a sum equal to refund India for the military expenditure. During the long years that preceded this last, India has suffered and

suffered patiently a yearly drain upon her treasury on account of the Straits settlements of over 30,000*l*.

With respect to the want of legislation, too, it may be doubted whether the Straits has really suffered much on this account. Certainly there is less risk to a country in men who are ignorant of its wants abstaining from legislating altogether, than in hurrying enactment upon enactment with ill-directed haste. So I think it has proved with Singapore. Founded and its earlier development watched over by men of the enlightened policy of Sir Stamford Raffles and Mr. Crawfurd, it only required to be allowed to grow up unmolested to maturity to present the picture of prosperity which it now does; and perhaps had the zeal even of those on the spot most interested in its progress, been permitted at all times to display itself in multitudinous reformatory enactments, the result would not have been so satisfactory. Indeed, I consider that when the Government becomes local, it will require to carefully avoid hasty or revolutionary legislation. Stability lays claim to first respect in the native mind, and any policy that would seek to be constantly altering the laws and administration of Government even for the sake of improving them would be a disastrous one.

When the Indian Government hands over the Straits settlements to the Crown, it will deliver a trust honestly kept and well deserving the solicitude of its new guardians. It has shown, too, an example of high-minded forbearance in abstaining to check the growth of a promising colony to save its own

treasury, an example which, though owing to improved resources it need not now be followed by the Imperial Government, should nevertheless be set down on that colony's history against any day of unforeseen calamity. With the new colony, the Indian Government will also hand over to the Crown a revenue ready made ample in all respects, and gathered in a manner that leaves trade and industry unburdened, and lays the pressure chiefly upon native vice and luxury.

From the time of its foundation till 1805, Penang was subordinate to Bengal; from that date till 1829 it ranked as an independent presidency. During the first four years of its settlement, Singapore was a dependency of Bencoolen; for the next two years it was placed under the Bengal Government, and in 1825 both it and Malacca, which had in that year come finally into our possession, were united to Penang, and formed for the first time "the incorporated settlement of Prince of Wales' Island, Singapore and Malacca," by which title the three stations are still officially designated. For four years the incorporated settlement continued the fourth presidency of India, but in 1829 it was deprived of the somewhat expensive distinction, and placed once more under the Bengal Government, in which condition of dependency, and with no alteration whatever in the form of its administration, it has remained down to the present day.

The Governor, who is placed with supreme local control over the three settlements, is the appointee and representative of the Bengal Government. For

a long time after their incorporation the chief seat of government was Penang, but now and for many years back, the Governor's residence is in Singapore, and he spends only about three months of each year between the two other stations. Under the Governor, there are three Resident Councillors: one at Penang as sort of Lieutenant Governor; another at Singapore as secretary and treasurer to Government; and the third at Malacca as the Governor's representative there. In each station there is either one or two Assistant Resident Councillors, who, except in the absence of their chiefs, discharge the duties of police magistrates or other appointments of a similar nature. The Governor and the Resident Councillors may be said to comprise the executive government, collecting and disbursing the revenue, registering the trade, conducting the diplomatic and political correspondence, and having supervising control over all the other departments.

The Public Works Department is under a chief engineer and an executive engineer. The municipal works of each station are under separate and partly elective commissions. There is a Commissioner of Police with a deputy and staff at each station, under the executive of course, but partly paid from the municipal funds. There is also at each station a police magistrate, a marine magistrate and master attendant, and a Court of Requests with a commissioner to adjudicate on civil suits of trifling value. The military throughout the Straits consists at present of two regiments of Madras Native Infantry, and three

garrison batteries of European artillery, under the disposition of a brigadier resident at Singapore. The incumbents of nearly all the chief offices of Government are military men of the Indian army; there is no covenanted civil service as in India, but I do not propose to consider here either the personnel of the Government, or particularly the nature of the various offices. Further on will be found a list of the salaries attached to all the chief Government appointments. My object is to get as directly as possible to the revenue and expenditure; the former a matter of paramount interest just now to the Imperial Government, and the latter involving some questions of great importance both to the settlement and to the mother country, such as the military defence and fortifications.

Before passing on to these, however, I ought perhaps to notice here the singular advantages which the Straits settlement has always possessed in the administration of justice. From their establishment each of the stations has possessed a supreme court of judicature, in which English law, civil and criminal, has been administered as in the courts of Westminster. Up till 1855 only one judge presided at the three courts, upon circuit, but in that year an additional judge was appointed. The courts of Singapore and Malacca are now presided over by one, and that of Penang by the other. To the non-official community these courts have served the purpose of a representative institution, and have always been a wholesome check upon the mal-administration of Government.

In earlier times, when the Company's servants, responsible only to an indifferent council at Calcutta, paid little regard to the interest and little respect for the opinion of the mercantile residents, the supreme court remained as a place of appeal where the grand jurors might from time to time raise their voice in such a manner that it could not well be disregarded. The judges have always been men of standing and ability, barristers of the courts at home, whose acquirements were such as to obtain for them from their sovereign the distinction of knighthood, in addition to the honour of an appointment of no small value. They were completely secured from the Indian authorities, and, by supporting the presentations of their grand juries, have done good service to the settlement independent of the value of their ordinary duties.

The sources of revenue, while they are certain, have the advantage of being few. The excise farms alone, being more than two-thirds of the gross income; the following being the revenue derived from all sources for the past official year; that is, from 1st May, 1863, to 30th April, 1864:—

	£
Excise and other farms	137,521
Land and forests	6,705
Stamp tax	26,175
Law and justice	9,957
Public works	4,322
Marine	4,300
Miscellaneous	3,029
Total	191,909

The system of excise farming, or yearly selling

out to the highest bidder the excise sources of revenue, is one, I believe, peculiar in a great measure to China and the European settlements in India and the Archipelago. It was first adopted by the Dutch, who early found it the only practicable method of collecting a revenue derived from a restriction tax upon the consumption of luxuries. It was copied from the Dutch by the English at Penang shortly after the occupation of that island, and has ever since continued in operation in the Straits. In later years it has been imitated by the King of Siam, by Rajah Sir James Brooke at Sarawak, and by the French at Saigon; and no one at all acquainted with the actual working of this revenue system will doubt its many advantages in a country where a small dominant race have the government of an extensive mixed population.

The frauds to which any European Government would be subjected were it attempting in such a possession as Singapore to exact an excise revenue by a paid establishment, would be so serious as to reduce the product by one-half, and at the same time, expose to corruption its own servants. Even could the men be spared, no staff of purely European officers could contend against the trickery and evasions of the Chinese and other elements in the populations. "Set a thief to catch a thief," and set a native to detect fraud on the part of his countrymen. But unfortunately native constabulary in Government pay are notoriously incompetent to resist temptation, and what would be gained in some cases by their greater skill and cunning would be lost in others by their

dishonesty. With the farmers—usually Chinese of large capital—it is otherwise. They employ men of their own country and caste against their own countrymen, on a principle of gradually descending responsibility, which renders fraud difficult; or, as is frequently the case, subdivide their farm and ensure themselves against imposition by selling the subdivisions to smaller farmers under them for sums certain. The profit obtained by the farmers above the amounts paid by them to Government is often considerable, but it is not more than would be the cost of collection by a paid establishment, and the taxes yield their full product, which I think they would fail to do under any other treatment. Indeed, a system of descending responsibility in the collection of revenue is adopted not only by the Chinese but by most of the native rajahs throughout the Archipelago, though not in the nature of farming. When in the Island of Lombock some years ago, I became acquainted with a rather singular method of detecting the abuse of this responsibility adopted by the rajah of that populous and important island. The rajah's revenues, derived from a head tax, were falling sadly short, apparently without any decrease of the population. After sore tribulation as to the probable cause of the deficit and the means of detecting it, he hit upon an idea which he wisely kept to himself. It was the custom of himself and his forefathers to repair every year to the summit of a high mountain and sleep there alone one whole night, during which slumber God was believed to reveal any important

danger that threatened the country or people, as also the means of averting it. This year when the day came round, the mountain was ascended in great pomp by the entire court to within a hundred feet of its summit. When nightfall came, the rajah leaving his attendants behind, proceeded alone to the summit, and having spread his mat lay down to sleep. In the morning at daybreak he rejoined his courtiers and announced that he had been vouchsafed a most wonderful dream. God had appeared to him and told him that a desolating plague would that year overrun his and the neighbouring countries; but all who chose might be protected from it by sending in to the palace a single steel needle, not more or less, for himself and his wife and each of his children if he had them. Of these needles the rajah was to have two large swords made and to hang them in the temple, and they would be a protection to all those who had contributed towards their material. Needles came pouring in by the bushel; each chief sending those from the people of the district over which he ruled. When the contributions were announced as complete, the wily rajah, instead of having them melted down had every lot carefully counted over, and in his hall of state confronted each chief with the number of needles received from his district in one hand and the poll-tax returns in the other. The dream was a useful one to the rajah, next year his revenue increased by more than one-half.

European houses of business or individuals never compete for the purchase of the Government farms

in the Straits, as the difficulties in the way of the direct collection of excise by Government would be opposed to them in even a greater degree; for while they would have to rely upon a native excise service, they would lack that respect which the authority of Government gives its officers. The Chinese are the only other class who have capital, energy, and system sufficient for the successful management of a revenue, and from the beginning, the chief farms have continued in their hands.* The policy of letting out the revenue in this way has frequently been called in question on the grounds that the servants of the former might take advantage of their quasi authority and become oppressive and extortionate; but there would be the same chance of this with Government excise officers, and against oppression on the part of the farmers, the people know they will much more easily find redress in our courts than against similar treatment on the part of Government officers. Besides, all fines for the infringement of the farmers' rights must be recovered in the magistrate's court, and no illicit opium or spirits can be seized except through the instrumentality of the police. For my own part, I think that almost every source of revenue from taxation might, in a country peopled as Singapore is, be farmed out with advantage, provided the tax in no way affected trade or commerce. The farms in the Straits

* The only farm which is not held by Chinese, is the excise upon toddy and baáng; these two articles are consumed in the greatest measure by natives of India, and the farms have generally been purchased by people of that nationality.

are now four in number; they are sold in April each year to the highest bidder either for one or for two years according to the nature of the farm. During the year that closed on the 30th of April last the farms at Singapore brought the following yearly rentals respectively :—

	£
Opium	64,829
Toddy and baäng	1,196
Spirits	25 052
Pawnbrokers	5,491
Total	96,568

The gross returns of the same farms at Penang and Malacca for the same period was 40,953*l.*

The opium farm, which is essentially a tax on the Chinese, gives the exclusive right to prepare and retail that drug. In the condition in which it is imported from Calcutta and Bombay, opium is a very different article from that which administers to the sensual enjoyment of the consumer, and the conversion of the imported article to chandoo, or the treacly consistency required for smoking, is one of the monopolies secured for the protection of the farmer. The opium is received from Calcutta in boxes containing forty balls each of the size of a 32 lb. cannon shot. These balls have an outer husk of compressed poppy-leaves, and contain a certain quantity of moist opium inside, but which in this state is unfit for consumption; so that, as long as the privilege of reducing it to chandoo remains with the farmer, he is tolerably safe in the enjoyment of his exclusive privilege to sell for consumption. The method of reducing the drug

is thus described in an interesting paper on the habitual use of opium in Singapore :—*

Between three and four o'clock in the morning, the fires are lighted. A chest is then opened by one of the officers of the establishment of the opium farmer, and the number of balls delivered to the workmen is proportioned to the demand. The balls are then divided into equal halves by one man, who scoops out, with his fingers, the inside or soft part, and throws it into an earthen dish, frequently during the operation moistening and washing his hands in another vessel, the water of which is carefully preserved. When all the soft part is carefully abstracted from the hardened skins or husks, these are broken up, split, divided and torn, and thrown into the earthen vessel containing the water already spoken of, saving the extreme outsides, which are not mixed with the others, but thrown away, or sometimes sold to adulterate chandoo in Johore and the back of the island.

The second operation is to boil the husks with a sufficient quantity of water in a large shallow iron pot for such a length of time as may be requisite to break down thoroughly the husks and dissolve the opium. This is then strained through folds of China paper, laid on a frame of basketwork, and over the paper is placed a cloth. The strained fluid is then mixed with the opium scooped out in the first operation, and placed in a large iron pot, when it is boiled down to the consistence of thickish treacle. In this second operation, the refuse from the straining of the boiled husk is again boiled in water, filtered through paper, and the filtered fluid added to the mass to be made into chandoo. The refuse is thrown outside and little attended to. It is dried and sold to the Chinese going to China, for three to five dollars per picul, who pound it and adulterate good opium with it. The paper that has been used in straining contains a small quantity of opium—it is carefully dried and used medicinally by the Chinese in haemorrhoids, prolapsus ani, and a few other complaints.

The third operation: the dissolved opium being reduced to the consistence of treacle, is seethed over a fire of charcoal of a strong and steady, but not fierce temperature, during which time it is most carefully worked, then spread out, then worked up again and again by the superintending workman, so as to expel the water, and at the same time avoid burning it. When it is brought to the proper consistence, it is divided into half a dozen lots, each of which is spread like a plaster on a nearly flat iron pot to the depth of from half to three-quarters of an inch, and then scored in all manner of directions to allow the heat to be applied equally to every part. One pot after another is then placed over the fire, turned rapidly round, then reversed, so as to expose the opium itself to the full heat of the red fire. This is repeated three times; the

* By R. Little, Esq., M.D

length of time requisite and the proper heat are judged of by the workman from the effluvium and the colour, and here the greatest dexterity is requisite, for a little more fire, or a little less, would destroy the morning's work, or 300 or more dollars' worth of opium. The head workmen are men who have learned their trade in China, and, from their great experience, receive high wages.

The fourth operation consists in again dissolving this fired opium in a large quantity of water, and boiling it in copper vessels till it is reduced to the consistency of the chandoo used in the shops, the degree of tenacity being the index of its complete preparation, which is judged of by drawing it out with slips of bamboo.

By this long process many of the impurities in the opium are got rid of, and are left in the refuse thrown out, such as vegetable matter, a part of the resin and oil, with the extractive matter, and a little narcotine. By the seething process the oil and resin are almost entirely dissipated, so that the chandoo or extract, as compared with the crude opium, is less irritating and more soporific. The quantity of chandoo obtained from the soft opium is about 75 per cent.; but from the gross opium, that is, including the opium and the husk, the proportion is not more than from 50 to 54 per cent.

Opium-smoking is undoubtedly a vice, and to some over sensitive minds the deriving of a revenue from it may appear a moral dereliction; but it is a subject which must be dealt with in a practical spirit, and there can be no question that unless we are prepared to interdict the use of opium altogether in our possessions in the Straits, and to double or treble our police to keep the interdict effective, we can work no improvement whatever on the present system. Now in the first place, I question seriously if we, a small, foreign, though governing race, have the right to suppress in a large people the indulgence of a vice of this sort provided it does not directly affect good order; certainly to exercise that right with any show of justice we must first close our public-houses and stop our imports and manufacture of strong drinks; and in the second place, no settlement such as the Straits

could spare the cost of a police sufficiently strong for this suppression without a taxation seriously trenching upon the industry of its people.

Next to the suppression of the vice is its regulation and confinement within reasonable bounds, and for this purpose the farming system is I think well suited. I cannot go the length, as I notice some local writers on this subject have gone, of saying that the main object of the farm at its establishment was the restriction of opium consumption. With the East India Company revenue was a matter of considerably greater solicitude than the moral condition of the large populations under their rule; and there can be very little question that the opium farm had its origin in the necessities of the local exchequer. But the fact that it has continued to contribute fully one-half of the revenue of the settlements has not deprived it of its beneficial influence. By greatly enhancing the cost to the consumer the consumption is kept within narrow bounds. To the labouring classes it is all but banned and forbidden fare, and even to the rich its indulgence to excess would be a serious item of expenditure. Besides this, the consumer is supplied by the farmer, though at a high price, with good sound opium free from the baneful adulteration to which so precious a drug would be subject if an unrestricted traffic were allowed. Altogether the opium farm is a source of revenue to the Straits of which no friendly councillor will seek to deprive it.

Toddy and baâng are purely native indulgences. Both are intoxicating, and therefore may fairly be

subjected to a tax on the consumption. The farm however realizes but a small sum comparatively speaking, from the fact that the farmer's duty is not large and that the consumption of both is confined to a small section of the inhabitants. Toddy is the sap of the cocoanut-tree, drawn by an incision from the upper and greener part. It possesses a peculiar property; it is a fine wholesome refreshing drink when newly collected, is strongly stimulating a few hours afterwards, and when kept for twenty-four hours a very small allowance indeed will suffice to intoxicate the most hardened drinker. Baâng is obtained from a small bush not unlike the flax-plant, and is a strong harsh narcotic like tobacco; it is both chewed and smoked by the natives of India. The toddy and baâng farm is, as already stated, the only one not rented by Chinese.

The spirit farm, which is next in value to that of opium, deserves no particular allusion; it confers a right to tax at a certain rate the retail of all liquors containing alcohol, except toddy and baâng. The nature of the pawnbroker's farm may be gathered from its name; it confers the exclusive right to advance small sums of money upon pledged articles; but it is strongly illustrative of a feature in the character of the native population, that in Singapore alone, where there are not 100,000 souls, the farmer can pay a premium of 450*l.* a month for the monopoly of the pawnshops. Buying and selling it is said is an indication of fair civilization; and mortgaging, which followed long afterwards in mercantile history,

one of positive refinement. If this be so the native population have carried their refinement to a high point.

The Government farms were not always confined to their present number. In the earlier days of the settlement there were several others; some of them were trifling and unimportant, but there was one which ranked next to, if indeed it did not take precedence of, that of opium—this was the gambling farm. It was established at the same time as the others, and abolished in 1829 on a presentment of the grand jury of Singapore. Some of those grand jurors have lived to bear witness to the error they committed when, yielding more to the influence of official blandishments than to their own convictions, they recommended the Supreme Government to sacrifice a large revenue, and at the same time withdraw the most wholesome restriction which it is possible to impose upon a popular vice. The preponderance of public opinion now is certainly in favour of the farm, and several agitations have been begun with a view to urge its reintroduction upon Government; but the fact that no additional revenue was acknowledged by the community to be required has doubtless prevented public opinion taking such a decisive form as it might have done under other circumstances.

Gambling is an inherent vice in three-fourths of the population of the Straits. Legislation has done all that it can to suppress it, and that all has been futile. It has increased steadily with the population. The interdict we have placed upon it has only served

to drive it from daylight to darkness—from open, fair and moderate gaming to surreptitious, stolen, and unbounded indulgence, where the simple can be victimized by the crafty with impunity, and where violence and bloodshed may be resorted to with little fear of detection. As with the use of opium, no police that the settlement can afford to maintain will be able to do more than drive the vice into hiding-places. The cases which are brought before the magistrates, indicate a very fair activity on the part of the police; and though the fines inflicted after conviction are as heavy as they can be made consistently with the nature of the offence, yet they and the exposures fail altogether of their effect as a deterrent to others, and the charge-sheet of the magistrates' court continues to show an undiminished daily crop of offenders. Indeed, the vice would appear to gain strength from the very difficulties we oppose to it. It has frequently come to light that fines which are levied upon individuals have been refunded by subscriptions made over the next night's gaming-table. The chances of detection and of fine seem to be well calculated, and to be looked upon and provided for simply as a premium on the play—just as a farmer's tax would be. Those who question the morality of a gambling farm, therefore, would do well to reflect that, in point of fact, the settlement now derives a very heavy addition to its revenue from gambling. The money collected in the magistrate's court in Singapore alone from fines on gambling for the first four months of the present year (1864), and handed over to the muni-

cipal fund for public purposes, was, in round numbers, 6,112 dollars, or 1,370*l.*, and the only practical difference between swelling our revenue with these fines, and drawing the produce of a gambling farm, is that, in the one case we heavily tax those few unfortunates only whom we detect in the indulgence, and, in the other, we should tax all who actually do indulge in the vice.*

It is amusing the stratagems to which some of the wealthier if not of the better classes resort to obtain peaceable enjoyment of a good day's gambling. Invitations, often printed, are issued ostensibly for a picnic to be held in some lonely district of the jungle, where the police would have no little difficulty to find them out. One of these printed circular invitations was placed in my hands by the Commissioner of Police at Singapore. It is an amusing document, and I give it in facsimile. Where or by whom they had got it printed it is difficult to say.

Mr. Quang Toon Lee presents his best Compliments to Mr. Tan Gee Wok, and requests the pleasure of his Company to Pic-Nic Entertainments, on Sunday next the 20th Instant at Salang Tiga, Bukit Timah Road, Plantation of Kim Tiang Hoo, next door of Beng Lee's Plantation, and also be requested all his Amiable invitors will start at 5 A.M. punctually on that day.

The favour of an answer is obliged.

SINGAPORE,
15th March, 1864.

* Not only are these fines appropriated to public purposes as stated, but they have actually come to be calculated upon as a part of the revenue. That I am not mistaken in this, the following extract from the annual report of the president of the Municipal Commissioners for 1862 will show. The president in this case was also resident councillor, or next in authority to the Governor. After alluding to the items of revenue

If it was only at those picnic entertainments that illicit gambling went on, there would be little to fear beyond what evil there is in the vice itself; for though surreptitiously indulged in as far as the police are concerned, there is sufficient openness and generally honour in such gaming to secure against foul play or violence. But the great bulk of gambling is carried on by those who cannot afford to send out printed invitations, and indulge for a whole day in a country picnic. These are forced for concealment into hidden dens in the lowest slums of the town, where, if they are secure from the police, they need place no limit of time or money on their play, and may fearlessly resort to any extremes which may be prompted by the fortunes of the game. Indeed, there is something in the necessity for concealment which of itself removes a natural and wholesome restraint upon the gambler; for if to gamble is to break the law, he must feel that as a law breaker he has already placed himself beyond the social pale; and it is well known with this consciousness how reckless in other respects such men become. It is beyond all doubt, too, that to be secure against interruption, these town gaming parties extensively bribe the police. In the entire police force of Singapore, numbering over 400 men, there are only six Europeans, and the native races of which the bulk is composed are notoriously weak

which showed an improvement, the report says:—"The increase of revenue from the above sources is, however, unfortunately counterbalanced by a heavy decrease in magistrates' fines and fees—a falling off equivalent to a fourth of the revenue derived from this same source last year, a sum of more than 5,000 dollars."

against bribery. A case was brought to light about four years ago where a systematic receiving of bribes was proved to have been practised, and this not by the native police only, but by some of the European as well. To the gamblers it is a simple calculation what their chances of detection and fine against an unfriendly police amounts to, and if they can compromise the risk by payment to the constables of a lesser sum beforehand, they gladly do so.

The consequences of the present system as compared with that under the farm, may shortly be summed up to be an even greater practice of the vice—a clandestine indulgence without stint or regulation, and a corrupt police. With a farm—such as that which was abolished thirty-five years ago—the vice would be heavily and evenly taxed; it would be forced within reasonable bounds—would be fair and open, and free from scenes of violence. There would be a certain number of gaming-houses in each district; these would be open at certain hours only, and subject to rules and regulations, for the observance of which the farmer would be responsible. A number of police peons might be present at each gaming-house as a guarantee against violence; and the public would have free access to them at all times, and habitual gamesters thus become marked men. By such a farm the police would not only be kept pure, but be relieved of a very large part of their present labour. The farmer would have an organized system of espionage, independent of, though subject to, the general supervision of the police. It is possible that illicit gambling

might still go on, and that the officers of the farmers would be bribed, as the police are under the present system; but though possible, it is very unlikely. The premium charged by the farmer would probably amount to less than would be the cost of bribery; and, besides, even if such bribery did take place, it would have a very different consequence from the corruption of the police upon whom the settlement must depend otherwise for so much.

Nor do I think there is any good reason why such a question should not be openly and seriously considered from a revenue point of view, and some estimate be made of the amount likely to be realized where a gambling farm is re-introduced. The same maudlin morality that would, with a knowledge of all the correlative advantages of the farm, reject such a source of income to the state, must, to be consistent, reject also every excise possessed by the settlement. Indeed, it almost appears to me that, strictly speaking, there are better grounds for abandoning a revenue derived from the licensing of spirit-drinking and opium-smoking than from a tax on gambling; for whereas the two former vices permanently injure the constitution, the latter, directly at least, affects the pocket only. With regard to all such taxes, I would set it down as a rule, that where a government finds itself either without the right or without the power to suppress a popular vice, the taxation of that vice becomes a much more legitimate source of revenue than any burden laid upon honest industry.

Of the probable returns of a gambling farm a

very accurate test can be obtained by a reference to those years in which it was in operation. In Singapore the farm existed from 1820–29, and during those nine years it took precedence of all other sources of revenue. The returns in dollars for that period of the three principal farms at Singapore were :—

— —	Opium.	Spirits.	Gambling.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1820-21	7,345	3,305	5,275
1821-22	9,420	5,115	7,335
1822-23	14,200	7,700	9,500
1823-24	22,830	8,270	15,076
1824-25	24,000	9,600	25,680
1825-26	24,030	12,000	33,657
1826-27	24,600	12,000	30,390
1827-28	24,720	12,180	32,616
1828-29	32,640	15,600	33,864

It will be seen from these that the gambling farm increased with the population more steadily and in a greater ratio than either that of opium or of spirits; so that the increase which it would if continued have made up to the present day, may at the least be taken as equal to that made by the opium and spirit farm. From the table of farms first given, it will be found that in 1863–64 the produce of the opium farm is nine times, and that of the spirit farm seven times, greater now than they were respectively in 1828–29; taking the mean of these rates, the sum realized from the gambling farm in 1828–29 has to be multiplied eight times to give its present value, which would therefore be for Singapore 205,000 dollars, and adding a third for Penang and Malacca 273,000 dollars, or equal to 61,000*l.* for the entire settlement yearly. Here then

lies a sure and legitimate source of income, equal to close upon one-third of the present gross revenue, ready to pour into the Colonial exchequer when occasion shall require and when her statesmen shall have the power and shall grow bold enough to legislate according to her best interests, independent of the clamour of a distant sect alike uninformed and uninterested.

The revenue derived from land and forests is not great, nor can it be expected materially to increase. It comprises not the sums derived from the sales of unoccupied land, but only rents, quit-rents of land conditionally alienated and the amounts paid for commutation of quit-rents, together with a small sum for the right to cut timber on waste lands. The sums received for the sale of land are carried to a deposit account against the public debt and do not appear at all as revenue. In the early days of the Company the fee simple was seldom parted with; and both town and country lands were sold for a term of years only, subject to a small annual payment. From official carelessness and other blunders, however, some grants, both at Penang and Singapore, appear from the first to have been held in perpetuity, and in later years, when the giving to purchasers a permanent interest in the soil became an acknowledged principle in good government, the sales were made in fee simple or next thing to it, and every facility offered to previous holders to convert their leases to the same tenure on equitable terms. As this process of conversion is still going on, and as no new rents are now being reserved, the land

revenue so far must gradually decline, but the increased value of the unsold lands as they are brought to market will probably compensate for this in another way.

According to estimates drawn up by the surveyor-general in 1860, it appears that in Singapore there were at that time about 25,000 acres under cultivation and about 120,000 lying waste, of which probably five-sixths or 100,000 acres remained in the hands of Government. In Penang there were in the same year 7,500 acres, and in Province Wellesley 50,000 acres, available for sale. In Malacca the territory is much more extensive, measuring over 1,000 square miles; and of this 250 are calculated to be under cultivation, and the remaining 750 to be disposable in the hands of Government. When we came into possession of Malacca it was found that nearly one-half of the territory had been granted away by the Dutch some fifty years before to private hands on somewhat peculiar terms. To buy up these rights our Government granted annuities to the aggregate value of nearly 2,000*l.*, and also agreed to the somewhat extraordinary condition that these lands should, in the event of the settlement being abandoned by our Government or transferred to any other Power, be returned to the representatives of the annuitants. This condition long remained a stumbling-block in the disposal of these lands, it being impossible for our Government to grant them in fee simple. This difficulty has now been removed however—somewhat arbitrarily it is true—by the late Land Act, so that the whole of the waste lands of Malacca may be said to be at

the disposal of Government. The disposable land then in the British possession in the Straits of Malacca is as under :—

Singapore	100,000	acres.
Penang	7,000	,,
Province Wellesley	50,000	,,
Malacca	400,000	,,
Total	557,000	acres,

which, valued at the minimum selling price of five rupees, or ten shillings per acre, gives a sum of 278,000*l.* as a standing capital to the settlement, either to be gradually gathered in at improved rates, or ready at any moment to be pledged for its necessities.

The stamp-tax, which is now a considerable source of revenue, was only introduced at the beginning of last year. Great outcries were made against it by the mercantile community, who based their remonstrances first on the assertion that no further revenue was required, and that the settlement already paid all her legitimate expenses; and secondly on the nature of the tax itself, which they declared was an infringement of that free-trade policy which it is so essential to maintain in the government of these dependencies. The first objection however was unreasonable as applied to India, for though the existing revenue was equal to the civil expenditure, still it left the military almost entirely unprovided for; and however small a share the settlement ought to have to pay of its military defence, India ought certainly to have to pay none, as it derives no advantage therefrom; and, if there are only the two pair of shoulders on which to lay the burden, those of the settlement ought

certainly to bear it. So at least thought the Indian authorities, and those at home too it would appear, for the remonstrances of the Chamber of Commerce to both were alike disregarded. As to the nature of the tax itself the objections were scarcely better founded, because a stamp duty has always been found a very fair means of raising a revenue and not particularly burdensome upon mercantile transactions, as on all but legal documents it amounts only to a fractional percentage. At all events it has not as yet, after eighteen months' operation, proved any perceptible restraint on the business of the Straits; and the merchants have done their best to turn its burden away from themselves by making it a regular recognized charge upon their constituents at home.

The product of the tax during the year 1863-64, for which I have stated the general revenue, has been so regular from month to month as to permit it to be taken as a tolerably certain index of its value in time to come. The following are the monthly returns at Singapore during the year :—

	£
1863—May	1,672
June	1,322
July	1,679
August	1,636
September	1,972
October	1,583
November	1,526
December	1,681
1864—January	2,308
February	1,460
March	1,879
April	1,919
Total	£20,657

The returns of Penang and Malacca are nearly as regular, and bring the gross amount realized for the year up to 26,175*l.*

The fourth item I have set down in the account of revenue includes all fees received by the registrars of the two divisions of the Supreme Court of Judicature, the Commissioners of the Courts of Requests, and the Deputy Sheriffs; all unclaimed property of intestates, also all fines and forfeitures except those levied at the police courts which go to the municipal funds. The fees of the Supreme Court form perhaps the largest part of the sum set down under this head; these were, until lately, the perquisites of the registrars, who received them in lieu of salaries; they were very large, and it is asserted that the incomes of the registrars were, at one time, greater than those of the judges of the court. However this may be, there is no doubt that the change to fixed salaries was ill relished by them. I have certainly heard one of the registrars talk bitterly of the Act that "robbed him of his fees." Litigation appears to be a weakness with some sections of the native population, and there is no lack of business for the court in its civil jurisdiction, nor does there appear to be any lack of agents to conduct it, the number of practitioners authorized to plead at the bar of the court numbering no less than thirteen in Singapore alone.

Under the head of Public Works are included the rents of public markets, that are let out yearly by public auction at the same time as the farms, rents of Government bungalows and other buildings. Under

Marine, are placed rights of Government steamers, light dues, hospital charges recovered, and sale of coals and stores to H.M.'s steamers, &c. As to light dues, though no European ship-owner would ever grudge to pay such a tax, they might, I think, if the revenue could spare it, be abolished; the sum they yield is not great—barely amounting to 2,000*l.* annually—and they interfere with that absolute freedom of the port which it is desirable that the Straits settlement should maintain in name as well as in substance.

In addition to the ordinary revenue, but distinct from it, is the municipal fund of each station. These are supplied by assessment upon dwelling-houses and carriages, supplemented also to a large extent by the fines recovered at the magistrate's courts. In Singapore the municipal receipts for last year amounted to 25,207*l.*, of which sum 22,233*l.* was derived from assessment and other sources, and 2,974*l.* from the magistrate's court. From these funds are defrayed the entire cost of the maintenance of the police force at each station, the cost of maintaining the public roads and bridges within a certain radius of the towns, and all other expenditures connected with municipal affairs. The administration of them is entrusted to committees, consisting partly of nominee or official members, and partly of members elected by a majority of the rate-payers. The expenditure of the Singapore fund for last year was 22,963*l.*, of which 9,990*l.* was for the police establishment.

Such are the purely local sources of the revenue of the settlement, and they could scarcely be more satis-

factory. The yield of the Excise farms, on over two-thirds of the gross income, can be affected only by an increase or decrease of the population—by the former favourably and adversely by the latter, and as the cost of Government will probably rise or fall by the same causes, so far the revenue will be self-adjusting. The stamp-tax, which forms the next largest source, will be affected chiefly by commercial prosperity or prostration, and it is worthy of remark that the present year, for which its returns have been given, has, owing to the American war and other causes, not been a very bright one. The other sources are so legitimate in their nature, and even taken together, comparatively so small, that by no combination of unfavourable circumstances can a falling off in them seriously affect the financial condition of the settlement.

The general expenditure of the Straits for the last official year ending 30th April, 1864, may be set down under the following heads :—

	£
Collection of revenue	7,585
Allowances under treaties	6,279
Public works	27,350
Salaries and expenses of departments	25,861
Law and justice	23,564
Marine	14,908
Retired allowances and grants in charity	5,402
Education	2,239
Miscellaneous	2,744
	114,932
Military	81,073
Total	£ 196,005

The expenditures under these heads embrace every charge civil and military at present incurred on account

of the Straits, and except only the cost of maintenance of the Indian convicts, which, though paid out of the treasury here, is clearly an item for reimbursement.* The cost of the post-office is also omitted, as the receipts under that head I have not carried to the credit of the revenue; but I may mention that the cost of the post-office is only 2,124*l.* annually, while its receipts on collection of postage was 14,280*l.* for last year. Taking, then, the gross outlay comprising as it does every possible charge against the settlement from the revenue as stated at page 209, there is left a deficit of only 4,096*l.*, and this after paying the monstrous sum of 81,000*l.* or very nearly one-half of the entire revenue, for the support of military, in addition to the sum of 15,000*l.*, the cost of the local marine. In no year previous to this last has the military expenditure exceeded 50,000*l.*, and had it remained at this figure, instead of now showing a deficit of 4,000*l.*, the public accounts of the settlement would have displayed a surplus of 26,000*l.*

The cost of the collection of revenue is necessarily small from the nature of the taxes themselves. The

* The labour of the convicts, it has been maintained by some, more than recompenses the settlement for the cost of their support; and I find that public works are for the future to be charged with the wages of the number of convicts employed, at two-thirds the rate paid to free labourers, and the amount then charged will, it is expected, cover a large portion of the outlay on their maintenance. But this is scarcely fair to the settlement; for though some of the men may be worth that rate of wages, all are not, and besides it is hard that the settlement should have several hundred felons forced upon it for whom it is bound to find work, or, at all events, whom it is bound to support. Labour of this sort will always be lavished, and comparatively needless works undertaken simply to find it employment.

farms bring in their returns net, so that of the sum set down here, 3,884*l.* is for the cost in salaries, &c. of gathering in the land-rents, and 2,749*l.* the expenses and salaries of the stamp offices.

Allowances under treaties are: first, at Penang, 10,000 dollars a year to the Rajah of Quedah, his heirs and successors, for the cession of that island and Province Wellesley; second, at Malacca, a pension to Syed Sahaney; to the family of the Captain China of Dutch times, who possessed an important magisterial post, and to some few others; third, at Singapore,—

	£	
To Sultan Ali and family.....	649	per annum.
To Toonkoo Mahomed.....	134	,,
To Toonkoo Sleyman	134	,,
To Tumongong and family	943	,,
Total	£ 1,860	,,

These pensions are paid according to treaty, and were part of the consideration given by the Government for the cession of the island. The payment at Penang to the Rajah of Quedah must continue a permanent burden upon the resources of the settlement; but the pensions at both Malacca and Singapore will be considerably reduced and ultimately extinguished by the effluxion of time.

The expenditure under the head of public works has of late years been a heavy one in the Straits, and it may be doubted whether the settlement has reaped any benefit at all commensurate with the outlay. In the first place, an extensive system of fortification for Singapore was devised about seven

years ago, and is now barely completed, after having been tortured by a long series of modifications and enlargements according to the fluctuations of military tactics, and according to the different opinions of the officers who have held the appointment of chief engineer; so that whether or not such works may be fairly debited to the local instead of the imperial revenue, it is just ground of complaint that they should be set down at three or four times their proper cost. Further on I shall have more to say of these fortifications, and of their value as works of defence. In the next place, with respect to public works of a non-military character, the Straits settlement has been unfortunate, in so far that these have been undertaken quite as often to develop the plans of the department as to provide for the necessities of the place. The appointment of chief engineer, which has continued since 1857, has had much to do with this; it has been held by officers of some rank in the Royal Engineers, who draw large salaries from the local treasury in addition to their military pay and allowances, and feel bound in honour to project some work worthy of their professional status, and on a scale corresponding to the large emolument they receive. Fortunately these projections have seldom lately taken a substantial form, and it was determined to abolish the office in April this year; but the Indian Government had apparently some difficulty in finding another post for the incumbent, and so instruction was afterwards sent down that the appointment was to continue another year. The chief engineer's salary, and the

expenses of his establishment, are debited under the head of public works. Some creditable and useful undertakings, however, have been carried to completion under the direction of the chief engineer's department. Among others an extensive range of public hospitals; a new sea-wall on the western side of the river, which reclaimed some valuable town land; a fine granite-built lighthouse at Cape Rachado, and the imposing pile of St. Andrew's Cathedral.

The salaries and expenses of public departments call for no special remark; the former, with perhaps one exception, are in every respect ample for the duties performed, and the latter quite as great as they are likely to be under any other form of government. The exception I allude to respecting salaries is that of the governor. Even now—but especially if he has entrusted to him powers as her Majesty's plenipotentiary—it is most desirable that he should be in a position to entertain largely and liberally. From its central position, Singapore is the calling place of her Majesty's ships and of her Majesty's representatives on their way to or from China, Japan and the Archipelago; and its governor should be well subsidized, that he may without trenching on his private resources display that liberal hospitality which undoubtedly goes a long way to secure good feeling and respect. It is scarcely creditable, at all events, that her Majesty's representative in Singapore should be found to study economy so much more than the Dutch governor-general in Java, or the Spanish capitan general of the Philippines. It should be borne in mind, too, that

the residents of Singapore for the most part indulge in a somewhat lavish hospitality, which often threatens to eclipse that of the governor.

The principal officers of Government, and the salaries they at present receive, are as under. Their salaries are not all debited under the same head, but many are charged to their respective departments; such as the chief engineers and executive engineers to public works, surveyor general to land revenue, recorder, registrar, &c., to law and justice, &c. &c.

GENERAL.

	£
The Governor	4,200
Secretary and A.D.C., exclusive of Staff-pay	420
Chief Engineer (including military pay)	1,480
Senior Surgeon	960
Surveyor General	864

SINGAPORE.

Resident Councillor	1,800
Magistrate of Police	840
Executive Engineer (including military pay)	1,240
Commissioner of Police	1,200
Commissioner of Stamps	960
Master Attendant	600
Postmaster	400
Commissioner of Court of Requests	540
Deputy Commissioner of Police	528
Chaplain	960
Assistant-Surgeon	564
The Recorder	2,500
Registrar of the Court	1,200
Sheriff	360

PENANG.

Resident Councillor	2,400
Magistrate	720
Magistrate, Province Wellesley	720
Executive Engineer	480
Harbour Master	480

	£
Deputy Commissioner of Police	528
Chaplain	960
Assistant-Surgeon	564
The Recorder	2,000
Registrar of the Court	1,080
MALACCA.	
Resident Councillor	1,200
Magistrate	720
Surveyor	600
Assistant-Surgeon	564
Missionary Chaplain	420
Registrar of the Court	600

The amount charged under the head of law and justice in the general table of expenditure it will be seen is far in excess of the salaries given to the recorders, registrars and sheriffs; for it includes, besides the court establishment, the expenses of the jail and house of correction, the Court of Requests, &c. Under the head of Marine is comprised the cost of some small steamers, and which are noticed further on. The sums spent on account of education, retired allowances, charities, and those set down under miscellaneous, are unimportant, and call for no special remark.

The military expenditure is one of the largest, and probably the most unsatisfactory of the items that appear in the public accounts. It is one against which the residents have protested for a long time back; and though these protests may appear to have been sometimes carried to unreasonable extremes, yet they are based upon indisputably good grounds. It is not so much the extent of the sum charged upon the local revenue—though in the last year it has swallowed up nearly one half of the revenue—which has caused dissatisfaction,

as the fact that the military strength it pretends to secure is no defence at all. Against internal revolt or disaffection the Straits settlement needs no such force as it at present maintains. An additional police, perhaps better armed, would in such an event serve this purpose, and be otherwise useful besides. And though the local resources would be ungrudgingly contributed towards an efficient outward defence too; yet, against external attack—that is, against the assault of a European force, on such a place as Singapore, what could 400 or 500 sepoys do? Why, as far as any infantry is concerned, the town could be laid in ashes by an enemy from his ships without the exchange of a single musket-shot. The military strength in infantry of the Straits is, and has been for a long time back, two regiments of Madras native troops—numbering about 1,000 bayonets, 400 of whom are stationed at Penang, 100 at Malacca, 100 at Labuan, and 400 at Singapore. Scattered in this way, it is not difficult to appreciate the value of the protection they would afford. In Singapore the 400 men do little more than furnish the ornamental guards to the treasury, the Government offices and other public buildings.

There are forts, it is true, which have cost the Indian Government and the settlement large sums of money, and which give Singapore the empty reputation of being a stronghold. But since these have been constructed, they have never yet been manned; far from this, there have not been men enough to keep the guns in order. On the Queen's birthday, some two years ago, it was determined

to fire the royal salute from the big guns at Fort Canning. At sunrise, the military and the volunteers were drawn up in order on the plain beneath, and they were to wait the firing from the fort to commence their evolutions. I was at the time standing with some others on the ramparts overlooking the southern battery of the fort; from the seven sixty-eight pounders mounted on which the salute was to be fired. The guns were manned by a detachment of European Artillery. At six o'clock the royal banner was unfurled, and run up to the mast-head of the large flagstaff in the centre of the fort. This was the signal for the firing of the first gun, but unfortunately it hung fire, and would not go off—the trigger of a second was pulled with similar result; a third also failed, and only the fourth, sixth, and seventh guns of the battery could be discharged. New tubes were tried on the guns that had missed fire, but it was no use, and the salute had to be bungled through with the three guns only, much to the astonishment of the disconcerted infantry and volunteers on the plain beneath.*

The fortification of Singapore consists of four earthworks — Fort Canning, Fort Fullerton, Fort Palmer, and Fort Faber. Fort Canning is a redoubt, following the contour of the top of Government Hill,

* I have been told that the cause of the guns not going off was that the junk wads which had been placed in them after last drill practice were not withdrawn before loading; but I can scarcely think a detachment of Royal Artillery could neglect such a precaution, and I prefer rather to blame the guns than so seriously to call in question the efficiency of the Artillery.

which stands near the centre of the town about half a mile back from the beach. The hill rises abruptly from the level land around, in the shape of a cone, to the height of some 200 feet. Its apex is of considerable extent, the ramparts measuring nearly 1,200 yards. It mounts at present seventeen heavy pieces, namely, seven 68-pounders, eight 8-inch shell guns, and two 13-inch mortars; there are also in course of construction, platforms for eight more heavy pieces. Besides these, the ramparts of this fort are furnished with a number of 14-pound carronades. Within the ramparts are barracks, hospital, and accommodation for 150 European artillerymen. Fort Fullerton is a battery *à fleur d'eau*, built on the promontory at the western entrance of the Singapore river, containing barracks, &c., fit to accommodate about half a garrison battery of European artillery, or about 40 men; it mounts nine 68-pounder guns, and one 13-inch mortar, with platforms ready for five more big guns. Fort Palmer is a small earthwork overlooking the eastern entrance to New Harbour, and contains merely a guard-room with magazines, &c., and mounting five 56-pounder guns. Fort Faber is also an earthwork, half way up the hill of that name, overlooking New Harbour, with guard-room and magazine, and mounting only two 56-pounder guns. At the summit of the hill two mortars are also placed in position. The total of these guns and mortars actually mounted and supposed to be available in case of emergency in the defence of Singapore, is thirty-six; and if to this is added the fifteen for which platforms are ready made,

and which only want lifting into their places, there is a total of fifty-one guns of the largest calibre independent of smaller mounted ordnance. Until September last year the European artillerymen to work these fifty-one guns was exactly seventy; at that time the number was increased to 120, which now gives the somewhat more liberal allowance of two men to each gun—the other duties of the forts being left to look after themselves. Garrisoned in this way, it is easy to understand of what value the best of fortifications can be. But unfortunately there are good reasons to believe that the forts themselves are so placed that, even if fully garrisoned, it would be unwise to use them against an enemy's ships in the roadstead.

They have all, with the exception of Fort Fullerton, been constructed within the last seven years, and Fort Fullerton itself has been so extensively remodelled as almost to be considered a new work. It was in 1857 that the plan of this modern defence was first drawn out. At that time local disturbances among the Chinese and the rebellion in India, pointed, it was thought, somewhat ominously to the unprotected condition of the settlement. The object at first in view was to provide rather for the safety of the European residents in event of an outburst of local disaffection, than for defence against an outside enemy; at the same time to combine as much as possible the one with the other. But before the works had been commenced, the renewal of hostilities in China, the unsatisfactory condition of the foreign relations of the Imperial Government at the time, and the opera-

tions of other European powers to the eastward, determined a wider range to be given to the system of defence, and new plans were drawn up by which, if carried out, the place might be considered safe in event of a European disturbance. It was at this time too that the Imperial Government directed barracks to be constructed for the accommodation of a full regiment of European infantry.

The war in China however came to a speedy close, the position of affairs in Europe became settled and satisfactory, and the French did not seem inclined to push their advantages in Cochin China to a dangerous extreme. In fact, immediate danger appeared to have passed away, and with it it was thought the necessity for the extended works contemplated. Piece by piece the system of fortification was reduced until all that remained of it were the works described. They had been from the first a compromise, and by extension here and contraction there, by the desire to serve two purposes at the minimum of outlay, they have proved ill-suited for the one and inefficient for the other.

Fort Canning, which is much the largest of the forts, from its position must be used with great disadvantage against an enemy's ships at sea. It is placed right in the centre of the town, and would of necessity draw his fire upon the chief buildings of the place. Besides this, its distance from the beach is so much loss of power. A vessel with guns of the same calibre as those mounted on the fort, might so anchor as not only to be able to blow up all the

merchantmen in the harbour, but to destroy the greater part of the town itself, and yet be by a quarter of a mile beyond the reach of the fort. With even the powerful weapons now mounted upon it, this is painfully apparent. At the last shot and shell practice I witnessed, the target was placed just in the range of the anchorage of the larger ships. The distance was about a mile and a quarter, and the elevation required by the guns was so considerable, that together with the height of the fort the balls went plumping into the water at such a great angle that a ricochet was impossible. If they had hit the deck of a ship, they might have gone through her bottom; but they would require to be fired with extraordinary accuracy to drop in this way on to their mark.

Fort Fullerton possesses the advantage of stretching out on a slight promontory for some few yards into the harbour, and its embrasures being only some fifteen feet above the sea level, the shot from its guns, if even moderately well directed, would, owing to the ricochet, seldom fail to hull an enemy. But the fort is placed right in line with the densest and most valuable part of the town, and an enemy, in the attempt to silence it, would sweep away one-half of the richly-stored godowns of the port.*

The two small works at Mount Palmer and Mount Faber are well enough; they are clear of the town, and command two important portions of the harbour,

* Since the above was written, the dismantling of Fort Fullerton has actually commenced, for the reason assigned in the text.

but would of course be useless unless supported by extensive batteries bearing on the other unprotected points. In event of a war between Great Britain and any Power possessed of territory and of fleets and forces to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca, the safe possession of Singapore would secure an incalculable advantage in a strategetic point of view alone, and quite irrespective of its commercial value. It guards indeed the highway of steam navigation between India and the western world and China and the far east. With the Straits of Malacca in her possession, and with Singapore as a half-way house to provision, recruit, and repair her expeditions, Great Britain is sure of ascendancy in the far east. For from the vast military resources of India, she could pour in the very shortest time an overwhelming force upon any given point, and also so rapidly transfer them backwards and forwards as never to endanger the continent itself from which they were withdrawn. It is on this account that I have been so particular in dealing with the fort defences, and to prevent any false reliance being placed upon them. It is not unusual in China, Java, at Saigon, and in India itself, to hear people talk of the extensive fortifications of Singapore, which have been built and heavily armed to render the place a military stronghold. I do not know whether such a belief is shared by the War Office at home, but I hope not, for it is a very false one, and might prove a very fatal one.

Singapore is in no condition of defence whatever, and the town might be shelled and knocked to pieces

with impunity by a vessel mounting modernly heavy ordnance; or a couple of regiments of infantry might be landed at some point a few miles from the harbour and quietly marched from behind into the heart of the town. It ought here to be borne in mind that the destruction of the town is synonymous with the destruction of the station, which has no agriculture and no inland resources to fall back upon, but being an entrepôt, has its entire wealth stored up in its merchants' warehouses. It is not that the forts are ungarrisoned, though by being left so they are even placed at the mercy of any powerful local rising did such take place, but that they are unserviceable. Except from Fort Fullerton* not a shot could be fired into an enemy lying securely at anchor some two miles from shore and pouring broadside after broadside with deadly effect upon the warehouses of the town from guns of no greater strength than those mounted on the forts; and as to the landing of a body of infantry, I may mention that there is not a single heavy gun mounted on any of the forts capable of being turned to deliver its fire inland.

Nor does it appear that any system of fortification could be carried through that would prove by itself a satisfactory defence. The town might perhaps be rendered safe from the fire of an enemy's ships; but it must be borne in mind that the wealth which floats in the trading ships at anchor in the roadstead must at most seasons represent one or two millions sterling,

* When Fort Fullerton is dismantled an enemy's ship in such a position would be completely secure.

and owing to the gentle curve of the bay there is no point of land on which we could erect forts whose guns would be able to protect these. The best military and naval authorities whose opinions I have been able to obtain now agree that the protection of Singapore and its shipping in case of a European war can be best secured by the presence in the Straits of one or two of H.M.'s heavily armed ships. The position of the island is exceedingly favourable for a defence of this sort. At its western extremity the navigable channel of the Straits is not more than ten miles broad; at its eastern extremity, which with Bintang to the southward forms the eastern entrance to the Straits of Malacca, the navigable channel is barely eight miles, and admission here by night time could in an extremity be rendered highly perilous, if not impossible, by the extinction of the lighthouse which guards an important danger in the centre of the channel. The blockade of the Straits therefore either to eastward or westward of the island of Singapore could be easily maintained, and the distance from the one point to the other is so small, barely thirty miles, that the squadron, of whatever it might consist, could in case of danger be concentrated at either extremity at the shortest notice.

In no other way do I think could the safety of the shipping in the roadstead be secured, or the town protected against the possibility of an attack from an enemy's infantry landed at an unprotected part of the island and marched up on its rear. Efficient fortification might, as I have said, secure the town itself against destruction from an enemy's ships, but

it could never secure the ships in harbour nor prevent such a landing as that indicated. And, therefore, whether or not it be necessary to keep up the fortification of Singapore to a certain standard, the first and chief reliance must be placed upon a sea defence; which while it is the best will also be found the most economical to the State.

Some years ago it was resolved by the Imperial Government to construct a royal dockyard, arsenal, and coal depôt at Singapore for the use of the China fleet. I believe the intention has not been abandoned, though the carrying of it out has been delayed. The site has been selected, and contracts were only a few months ago entered into for the construction of substantial stone piers along the length of the water frontage; these are progressing, and the Government on entering upon the land came into possession of coal-sheds, a half-finished dock, and other premises ready made, the property of an unfortunate squatter who has up to the present moment received no recompence whatever. If these works are carried out on a scale commensurate with the requirements they are devised to supply, they will of themselves render the defence of the island an imperial necessity. And though some land batteries for the greater security of the dockyards themselves may require to be thrown up and kept garrisoned, yet the general defence must be by sea, and this will in part be secured by the very vessels that in the ordinary course of events must resort to the docks.

With regard to infantry, as I have said, it is not

required for the security of any of the stations in the Straits against internal revolt. Nor could it come into service against an outside attack until the very last extremity; and then no such paltry detachments as at present of 400 or 500 men could avail. But it seems to me that there could be no better point at which to keep a reserve of European infantry for general imperial purposes. By recent medical returns of the army and navy, the China station has proved by a long way the most unhealthy for European troops; and it is almost certain that for a considerable time to come, Great Britain must continue to back her influence there by the occasional display of military strength. Singapore is but six or seven steaming days from Hong Kong, and ten from Shanghai, even in an unfavourable monsoon; its climate has been established beyond all doubt to be kinder and more genial to the European constitution than any other in the east. It has no pestilence, no epidemics or endemics that extend themselves to Europeans. Invalids, broken down and exhausted, from China and Bengal alike seek its shores, and after a sojourn of six or seven weeks leave it in health and vigour. Why, then, not station in the Straits one moiety at least of the troops intended to be available for China and Japan? At Singapore about five years ago under orders from the Home Government, a magnificent range of barracks and cantonments were erected in the midst of scenery rarely equalled in its beauty, destined for and capable of accommodating 1,200 European soldiers and their officers, which have never

been occupied, and are now going fast to wreck and ruin simply from the want of tenants. What a saving there would be in the mortality, and what a difference in the condition of the troops detailed for the China service if, instead of being all hurried on to the cholera and fever swamps of the Yangtze, one-half were maintained in health and vigour in the luxuriant quarters of Singapore, and allowed to exchange from time to time with their less fortunate comrades at their post. Far more efficiency than would be lost by reason of the fortnight's or three weeks' delay (for it could not be more) in the appearance of the section of the forces left at Singapore on China soil in case of emergency, would be gained by the superior condition in which they would arrive. Besides this, it is apparent that any body of troops stationed at Singapore would be available not for China only, but for India; and that within a period so short as to meet any emergency which is almost possible to arise, nine days would serve to convey both men and baggage to Calcutta, Madras, or any point on the east coast, or in Burmah. Indeed, I think that, irrespective of the China force and in regard to India only, Singapore might with great advantage be used as a health recruiting or reserve station for European infantry.

There is another reason why it should be the object of the Imperial Government to carry out such arrangements as I have indicated, both with respect to the naval and the military forces of the east. It is that they would dispense with the necessity for any local force naval or military, and what sums now are, or

are proposed to be, spent from the local exchequer under these heads, could be handed over to the Imperial Government in the way of a subsidy. Determined to have some sort of marine available when need be for the suppression of piracy and other local purposes, the Government of the Straits have obtained three steamers, the yearly cost of which may be noted in the table of general expenditure. Unfortunately this marine is little better than a name only; one steamer is a wooden vessel of 400 tons, going at full speed probably five knots, and carrying two old 32-pounders and two swivels, useless for all purposes in India, and sent down to the Straits on that account. The other two are old Thames river-boats, of about 100 tons each, carrying no arms at all, which were sent first out to Calcutta, and then up with the last China expedition for conveying messages between the larger ships in the rivers.

This lilliputian fleet is officered by gentlemen in the uniform of the Straits marine, but barring the uniforms of the officers, its appearance is too ridiculous to have any moral weight, and as to its usefulness that can be understood from the description of the boats, and from the fact that with some very few exceptions where they have conveyed diplomatic despatches, they have been used for nothing else but passenger traffic. Even in this last capacity they have proved sadly insufficient. It is not many months ago that the Government medical officer of Malacca had the misfortune to fall from a height and fracture his leg so seriously as to necessitate amputation; no

doctor besides himself however was at the station, and as he was suffering great agony one of the two little steamers which happened to be there was despatched for the residency surgeon of Singapore. The distance between the two ports is barely 100 miles. Late on the night of the accident the steamer left Malacca and got into Singapore on the following night. She was despatched again early next morning with the necessary assistance on board and got back to Malacca that night, having occupied altogether two days for a passage which could have been completed there and back by one of the Malay sampans if well manned in thirty-six hours. When the steamer reached Malacca the patient had died after helplessly suffering the most excruciating agony, and when it was believed that amputation would have saved his life. What steamers of this sort could do against pirates or anything else with means to fight or means to run, must be left to conjecture only, for though especially destined for the purpose, as far as I can learn none of these vessels have ever yet been able to obtain more than a fading glimpse of a pirate and that while there were many reported to be about. There appears to me no public purpose which can be served by a local marine that could not be equally well secured by H.M.'s ships, except it be that Government officials, instead of travelling free of expense by the colonial boats, would like other people have to engage their passages by the regular opportunities.*

* The Court of Judicature on its circuits to Malacca, and the Governor on his yearly visit to Malacca and Penang, could be conveyed in any of H.M.'s vessels which might be stationed in the Straits at the time.

The advantages of making Singapore a constant station for at least a full regiment of European infantry and doing away with the Madras troops or any local force, would be shared alike by the Imperial Government and the colonial. In addition to the available position of Singapore its good climate and magnificent ready-made barracks before alluded to, a very considerable part of the cost of such a force might be defrayed by the subsidy drawn from the colonial resources. The sum set down in the public accounts of the past year for the support of the Madras regiments stationed in the Straits is no less than 80,000*l.*, and it has always before averaged close upon 50,000*l.* The cost of the local corps, which dissatisfied with the expenditure on the Madras troops it was at one time, I think unadvisedly, recommended by the residents of the Straits to raise, was set down at 44,000*l.* for 1,050 men. The Imperial Government then might safely calculate, I think, on a contribution from the local treasury of about 50,000*l.* yearly towards the military stationed at Singapore, and this ungrudgingly. An infantry regiment of Europeans would be many times more worth paying for than any local corps which could be organized.* Indeed, I consider under any circumstances a local corps is to be avoided. No such

* The out-door non-military guards, such as those to the Treasury and other public offices, might be furnished by a body of the native police, specially armed for the purpose. The few purely military guards which it would be absolutely necessary to maintain in the day-time could be protected by a covering, which, while it would shelter from the sun, need not interfere with efficiency; the periods of the guards, too, might be made half the ordinary duration.

force composed of any elements within reach in the Straits would be worth maintaining. With years of training they would fail to attain that discipline which would enable them to share effectively with regular troops in the defence of the place against a European attack, and besides lacking skill they would lack prestige and fail to obtain respect. Considered as a local defence merely, and if kept distinct from the police they will have nothing to do but to furnish guards for the public offices, to turn out on State occasions, perhaps in the absence of artillery to fire a few salutes, and so to consume the public money. If, on the other hand, they share in any way police duties they cannot be maintained as a separate body without leading to endless jealousies and frequent collisions between them.

I am strongly opposed both to a purely local land force and to a local marine being maintained at a point which must, if it is to be maintained in time of war at all, be defended by H.M.'s troops and H.M.'s ships; and which even in times of peace will in all probability continue a place of resort for both. All that it remains for the local government to do is to support an efficient police for the security of internal quiet, and to contribute in money to the general defence secured by the imperial ships and forces. The measure of this contribution must be calculated according to the peculiar circumstances of the colony, of its being both an imperial stronghold and a commercial emporium; but it would in all probability be less than the amount hitherto drawn

from the colonial treasury to pay the Madras troops, or than the residents proposed as the cost of a local corps and the present local marine, or in round figures 60,000*l.* annually.*

* It may be remarked that I have made no provision for the defence of Penang and Malacca. I have purposely omitted to do so, because I think neither of these stations is entitled to have regular troops stationed at it; unless, perhaps, at Penang a small shifting detachment might be maintained, but more for the purpose of affording change to the troops themselves than of securing defence to the island. To both Penang and Malacca, in a strategetic point of view at all events, may be safely applied the proverb, "Cantabit vacuus coram latrone viator."

CHAPTER IX.

EXCITEMENTS: AMOKS—GANG ROBBERIES—RIOTS—THE "ALABAMA."

Security of English Residents—Amok running—First instance in Singapore—Remarkable Case—Cause or Motive—Severe Measures to repress them—Gang Robberies—Two serious Cases—How they were suppressed—First Chinese Riot in 1854—Its Origin—Its Incidents—The Military and Special Constables—Second Chinese Riot in 1857—Its Cause—Its Incidents—The Volunteers—Its Pacification—The *Alabama*—Her Arrival—Native Excitement—Her Appearance—Her Officers and Crew—Captain Semmes—Her Departure—She burns the *Martaban*, *Sonora*, and *Highlander*, in the Straits—The Effect of her Appearance in the East on American Shipping.

DURING even the short period of its history in connection with our rule, Singapore has not been without its excitements, sometimes of national, though more frequently of local interest; but of these, very few have been of a dangerous character.

Although the native population numbers 300 to one of the European, no attempt has ever been made to use this fearful disproportion as a means of coercion or menace. There are 13,000 Malays, whose country we have occupied; there are 60,000 Chinese, with whose empire we have been twice at war, and there are nearly 10,000 natives of India of the same castes as those who rose up against us there, and yet with

but 500 European residents, and some 400 sepoy soldiers to protect them, there has been no display antagonistic to our rule, the most thorough good order has been maintained and the most complete obedience to our laws secured.

Some have attributed this long security entirely to the mixed and opposite elements of which the population is composed, and to the jealousy entertained by one section towards the other. The Chinese would certainly find no co-operation in any disturbance they thought fit to raise, from the Malays or Indians, or *vice versâ;* each stands distinct by itself, speaking another language * and writing another character. But though this condition of the population may be unfavourable to a combined insurrection, still it would be quite possible for any section, moved by a sense of injustice or by a sudden love for power, of itself to overthrow the existing Government. It is true that no usurpation of the kind could be long maintained among a population more than half antagonistic, but still it is proverbial that people worked up to the revolution point do not stop to weigh consequences, and a few days of such a revolution would be sufficiently appalling to make up for the limited length of its duration.

It is, I think, to the thorough feeling of good-will which subsists between every section of the population and the European residents, that the long immunity

* Malay is the language generally used by Europeans in their transactions with all sections of the native population alike, yet, among themselves, each section speaks its own tongue.

from serious disturbance is due. There may be hatreds between one native nationality and another, but all agree in looking up to and respecting the English community. The Government is respected too, for it has always been mild and just; but it would be quite possible, as has been too often seen already, for a small dominant population such as the English are in Singapore to render themselves so obnoxious that the mere possession of an abstract right to justice and equality would fail to establish contentment or good-will amongst the masses. But the conduct of the European residents of the Straits is rarely, if ever, domineering or oppressive, and the superiority which it is necessary for them to maintain has nothing assuming or arrogant about it. So proverbial indeed has this become, and so favourably does it contrast with the bearing of the Dutch in their Eastern possessions, that throughout Java and in every island to the eastward of it, there is no better introduction to native kindness and protection than the English name.

Like other countries inhabited by Malays and Bugis, Singapore is subjected occasionally to the dangerous practice of amok running. In apparent obedience to some sudden impulse, a Malay, or Bugis, will arm himself with two large *krises*, or daggers, one in each hand, and rushing from his house along generally the most crowded street in the neighbourhood stab at random all who come in his way. As many as fifteen persons have been killed or seriously wounded, and many others slightly hurt by one of

these amok runners before he was slain, but the killed always bear a small proportion to the wounded as the strokes of the infatuated man fall promiscuously and are ill-directed. As soon as an amok runner makes his appearance, a warning cry is raised and carried on in advance of him all along the street. On hearing this cry a general rush into the houses is made of all the women and children and of all the men who are not armed—no attempt is made to capture the maniac alive, but he becomes a mark for the musket, spear, or *kris*, of every man who can obtain a favourable opportunity for attack. He ceases to be viewed as human and is hunted down like a wild beast, yet it is surprising how long he will escape the death which is aimed at him from every side. Some of these unfortunate wretches have run the gauntlet of nearly a mile of street that was up in arms against them, and have temporarily evaded destruction, some for hours, and others for days. But the end is inevitable, they refuse to be captured, and are ultimately shot down or stabbed.

The first instance of running amok in Singapore occurred more than forty years ago, and Colonel Farquhar, then resident, narrowly escaped becoming a victim. It was in the time when the residency bungalows stood along the beach, where the esplanade is now, and the man was descried coming tearing down within the palisade that enclosed them, brandishing a weapon in each hand. The cry of alarm was raised, and Colonel Farquhar, who was at dinner at the time, ran out to learn the cause. He just got out as the man

was rushing past, and received a deep flesh cut on the shoulder; an instant afterwards, however, the infatuated wretch was run through the body by the sepoy guard on watch close by.

At the time of the Chinese riots, about ten years ago, an amok was run by a Bugis who made almost miraculous escapes from death before he was captured. The town was under guard at the time, the streets being patrolled by the troops and the volunteers, and fortunately few of the inhabitants were abroad. Towards evening the man was seen by his friends, with whom he had lived quietly, to arm himself and leave the house. A few moments afterwards he had commenced his work, and was rushing madly along one of the busiest streets. Many shots were fired at him both by the troops and volunteers, and repeated attempts made to arrest his progress; but though badly wounded and bleeding profusely he reached the side of the river alive. A large force was now after him and it was thought that his escape was impossible. It was getting dusk however, and the man throwing away one of his swords, placed the other between his teeth and plunged into the water. Some of those in pursuit got into the boats which lay around and gave chase, while others blazed away from the banks; but the man, who kept swimming up the river under water, only appearing now and then to take breath, evaded all attempts to take or shoot him and disappeared. An hour afterwards a dark slimy object was seen to creep from one of the small muddy canals in the upper part of the town. Those around went

up to it, and as they approached recognized the form to be that of a man evidently in great pain. No sooner however did the man see that he was watched than he started up, brandished his *kris*, and made a rush towards them; but his strength failed him, and in a moment afterwards he lay stretched powerless on the ground. On examination the man was found to be the late amok runner, and was conveyed to the hospital where he died the same night.

It is impossible to give any explanation of the motives which lead to these fatal frenzies. Some have written that they most generally arise from the dejection succeeding an over-indulgence in opium. But the Malays are seldom addicted to the use of that drug, and nearly all the amoks that have occurred in Singapore were run by men who had never tasted it. It seems to me that they are those who from some cause have become disgusted or tired of life and are determined to die, but that as their religion and superstitions prohibit suicide they resolve to provoke death at the hands of others. This may not account for the efforts they apparently make to escape when they have once started, but I would put these efforts down as unpremeditated, and as an obedience to an after-felt yet irresistible instinct of self-preservation. Not many years ago an amok, in which several lives were lost, was run in Campong Java by a Bugis who was known to be a peaceable, well-to-do, industrious man. He was also a very devout Mahommedan, and for nearly twenty-four hours before he started on the amok was intently perusing the Koran. He was not

killed, but was stunned by a blow from behind and taken prisoner. He was condemned to be hanged, and suffered death with the greatest indifference. When asked a few minutes before his execution regarding his motive, he said that he had felt his time was come, and that he was irresistibly impelled to seek death in the manner which he did.

So numerous at one time were these amoks in Penang, and so little did the punishment of hanging such as were taken alive appear to act as a deterrent, that Sir William Norris, the Recorder there, resorted in one case to the extreme measure of accompanying the ordinary sentence of death with orders that the body of the condemned man should after death be cut up into small fragments, some of which were to be cast into the sea and others exposed in public places of the town. No little indignation was felt and expressed by the more sensitive portion of the English community regarding this sentence; undoubtedly it was rather a bold exercise of judicial functions, but it apparently had the desired effect, for amoks were afterwards of much rarer occurrence. Mussulmen, while they pay little regard to death, have a horror of the mutilation of their dead bodies. Sir William Norris most probably knew this and resolved to turn it to advantage.

About twenty years ago an evil began to show itself in Singapore which threatened to extend to somewhat formidable dimensions. Up to that time thefts and robberies had been committed, and had increased pretty much in the same ratio as the popu-

lation, but had never been distinguished by any approach to combination. Then however what were termed "gang robberies" began to be perpetrated—at first by perhaps only ten or twelve men and directed against the houses and property of natives, but by and by the robber bands grew much stronger in numbers and open attacks were made upon the residences of Europeans. In one case the house of a merchant,* only about two miles from the town, was surrounded by a gang of forty to fifty, who were evidently under the belief that a large sum of money was concealed in the proprietor's bed-room, for they broke into this first. The proprietor had been aroused and met the intruders with a couple of loaded pistols which he levelled at the foremost; the weapons however missed fire, and were immediately knocked out of his hands, and he himself cut down and left for dead. The house was pillaged, and the robbers escaped with impunity. The owner was shortly afterwards picked up by his own servants still insensible, with a deep gash extending across one side of the face. It is said that his life was only saved by the presence of mind of a Chinese female servant, who, after he had been knocked down and when one of the robbers was proceeding to cut his throat, cried out, —"What! are you going to waste your time cutting the throat of a dead man while his house is yet unplundered?" the appeal succeeded, and the robber turned his attention to pillage.

* Mr. McMicking.

Not long after this a gang robbery of even a more alarming nature occurred to the house of a resident in Orchard-road.* The attack was made between ten and eleven o'clock at night, and about 250 men were engaged in it. The roads approaching the house were guarded, and every precaution taken to prevent interruption. Intimation of the intended attack, however, had by some means been conveyed to the inmates a few minutes before the arrival of the robbers, and some measures taken for the safety of life; the doors of the upper part of the house were barricaded, while arrangements were being made to carry the females of the family up to the roof of the building. The robbers first entered the lower part of the house and drove out all the servants they could find. Here they stayed for some time. They lighted all the lamps of the billiard-room, and burned on the table a plenteous supply of joss paper, apparently to conciliate the fates. This done they commenced to pillage, and then attacked the upper part of the house. This was defended for a considerable time, during which a good many shots were fired among the robbers. At last the windows and doors were broken in, but the whole family had got on to the roof, and, though the house was pillaged, no injury was done to the occupants.

Many other cases occurred, but these two were the chief; at least where European residents were attacked. The gang robberies were ultimately suppressed by a very decided action on the part of Government, who

* Mr. Hewetson.

gave liberty to the police and to the residents to challenge all bodies of men going about at night in larger numbers than ten; and if the challenge was unattended to, to fire into them. Several men were shot in this way, and a wholesome dread of attempting combined robberies implanted. One of the Chinese hoeys, or secret societies, too, gave up twenty of the men engaged in the second attack I have described, no doubt with the view to conciliate Government, and this also had a salutary effect. At the time these societies possessed great power among the Chinese; and though there was no direct evidence of the fact, it was strongly suspected that at the courts they were known to hold, they frequently awarded and had carried out the sentence of death. Many murdered bodies were found about the country, each mutilated in a peculiar manner: generally with either the right or left hand chopped up into a certain number of parts, left hanging together by the skin; and in these cases Chinamen never were the informants, nor could they ever be induced to give evidence.

There have been two great riots among the Chinese, both of which created for the time a good deal of uneasiness—not so much regarding the safety of the English residents, as from fear that the disturbance might spread and prove destructive to order, and fatal to large portions of the Chinese themselves. The first occurred in 1854, and was entirely a war of nationality between two of the largest divisions of the Chinese population—the Tu Chews and the Hokiens. Its origin was very insignificant. A man of each clan

had a bazaar dispute about some plantains, upon which blows followed. On this the clansmen of each belligerent who were in the neighbourhood joined the battle, which gradually grew in extent and spread from street to street. All the shops and houses were quickly closed and barricaded, and the fight became general throughout the town. The military were then called out, and they succeeded in clearing the streets; but the spirit of clanish jealousy and hatred had been roused. None of the shops would open, and when any of the streets were left unguarded the men on both sides would rush out and have a fight. This state of things grew gradually worse, and when the clans found they could only fight at short intervals and in small numbers in town, they each marched out in large bodies to the country, determined to have an uninterrupted trial of their respective strengths. Many battles took place and large numbers of men were killed on both sides, the heads of the dead men being cut off and carried on the spears of their adversaries. All the merchants' godowns in town were closed and business completely suspended. The residents were sworn in as special constables, as also many of the captains and officers of the ships lying in harbour, and detachments of these sent all over the country; the military being principally left to guard the town. Very little resistance was made by either of the belligerents to the Europeans. One position in the country had been palisaded by about 150 of the rioters. Here they made some stand, but after a little firing they abandoned it and fled; they were pursued, and it is

to be feared were not treated with much humanity by their pursuers. Several were shot, and among those brought into town as prisoners some were old men with broken arms and severe flesh wounds received in their retreat. Many of the dead bodies, too, that were afterwards picked up, contained what were undoubtedly bullets from the muskets of some of the special constables.*

After about a fortnight of this work both parties began to quiet down, and the most influential Chinese merchants, who suffered severely from the interruption to their trade, used their best efforts to cement matters. In ten days from the commencement of the riot 600 prisoners were accumulated in the lock-ups of the central police station, and as this was far in excess of what they could well hold, the authorities were anxious to allow the matter to blow over in the easiest manner possible. In three weeks all was quiet, and the shops began to open again and trade go on as before. No great efforts were made to capture the ringleaders, or single out those who had taken life; and though several hundred lives had been lost, only two men were hanged for murder committed during the riots, and in these cases the circumstances were too glaring and the evidence too strong to allow the matter to be passed over.

It was in this year and in a great measure owing

* It is worthy of notice, too, that not one of the troops, police, or specials was seriously hurt, much less killed. Colonel Butterworth, the Governor, was struck on the head by a brickbat while walking through the streets with a view to quiet the riots by his presence, but it may be doubted whether the missile was intended for him.

to these disturbances that the volunteer rifle corps sprang into existence. Some necessity was felt for an organization among the residents that would enable them effectively to supply the deficiency of the military in case of any sudden insurrection among the natives, and the idea was warmly supported, few refusing to join in such a praiseworthy movement. For the first seven years of its existence the corps was maintained with enthusiasm and deserved to be esteemed as a part of the colony's defences. The breaking out of the Indian mutiny in 1857 and the reports that were then continually going about regarding the disaffection of the Indian population gave the volunteers an importance which was acknowledged by the Government of India. This flattered the vanity of the corps, which afterwards carried on its banner (and with justice) the motto: *In Oriente primus.* But the chivalry of other days has passed away, and one decade has been the measure, if not of the existence, at least of the efficiency of the "Singapore Volunteer Rifles."

The second Chinese riot broke out in 1857, but was not marked by the party feuds or by the violence which distinguished the one of three years before, for it had entirely a different origin. A new municipal Act had just come into operation, and it was dissatisfaction with, or rather a misunderstanding of its terms that determined the Chinese to make the demonstration they did. One section of the Act gave the police magistrate power to inflict for certain minor offences fines not exceeding 500 rupees. The Chinese overlooking the discretion which was left with the

magistrate concluded that the extreme penalty was in all cases to be exacted, and judging that the offences mentioned (one of which was gambling) were those which they could not long avoid, determined to make a stand against it. Some collisions did take place between the Chinese and the troops, volunteers, and police, but they were not serious. It was rather a passive resistance which the Chinese had resolved to offer; they closed their shops to a man and absolutely refused to do business or carry on their daily avocations; but though passive it was a powerful resistance, for all the bakeries, groceries, and provision trades are left in the hands of the Chinese.

It was a short time before the real cause of disaffection became known to the authorities, and in the interval a collision took place. The military and the volunteers were called out and distributed over the town, and the streets patrolled as they were in 1854. Some of the residents, too, afraid lest it might be the prelude to an outburst similar to that which was brewing in India, sent their wives and families out of the settlement, some to Sarawak and others to Java. But the Chinese who had no cause of quarrel amongst themselves, and who are tolerably well impressed with the uselessness of open resistance to the English Government, kept close to their houses; and the few encounters which occurred were, it is believed, provoked by the over-zeal or over-officiousness of the volunteers, who, warmed up to a taste for adventure in one or two instances, forcibly broke into the blockaded houses and

dragged out the inhabitants. Some of these adventurous parties met however with a rather warm reception. The leader of one who had penetrated further than his comrades found himself surrounded by twenty or thirty Chinamen, and after a short and ineffectual resistance was knocked on the head and tumbled down a well, but he was not seriously hurt and was spared to fight another day. It is stated too that on one occasion the captain of the corps himself was seen together with two or three of his subalterns to come tumbling over the wall of a Chinese temple with rather indecorous haste.

But beyond a few of these escapades, which rather afforded the bases of after-tales of adventure than any cause for present alarm, this riot passed quietly over, and business was not suspended for more than a week. The Governor, Mr. Blundell, got a few of the most respectable of the Chinese merchants together and explained to them the exact nature of the Act, that though power was given to the magistrate to impose fines to the full extent of 500 rupees, yet the power would not be exercised unless there were peculiar circumstances calling for it. Notices were then circulated among the Chinese to meet at the police-office. A large concourse assembled and the Governor read out the Act from the roof of the building, and had it interpreted with the necessary explanations of the objectionable section. After this the crowd dispersed quietly, and that same day all the shops were open and business going on as before.

These appear to me the only events out of the

common which have in any way threatened the public safety, and after all the excitement they created had very little of real danger in it. Some of the harmless excitements which have from time to time been felt I have casually alluded to in the first chapter while glancing at the history of the settlement, and also elsewhere. There was the first China expedition, and the gaiety and bustle it created. There was the first appearance of tigers on the island. There was the agitation created by the Indian mutiny, and by the second expedition to China. There have also been the excitements attending the visits of great men to the place, and the changes of the respective governors.

Nor must I omit to mention the excitement into which the people of Singapore were thrown by the arrival of the renowned Confederate cruiser *Alabama*. Her appearance at Cape Town, and her subsequent destruction of three American ships in the neighbourhood of Sunda Strait, had brought her prominently into notice, and it had been confidently prophesied by the newspapers that she would ere long visit Singapore. A considerable time had passed away, however, since her appearance in the Java Sea, and there had been so many false alarms that people grew doubtful and were in a condition to receive with great distrust any further reports concerning her.

She arrived at dusk on the evening of the 21st December. A few made her out as she came to anchor, but as the larger part of the residents had retired to their houses in the country, the news did not spread.

Early next morning however, for it was the morning of the despatch of the Europe mail, around Commercial Square were clustered groups of eager and inquiring faces learning the particulars of the arrival of the renowned cruiser. The effect of these groups was heightened by the appearance, here and there, of the strange grey uniform of the Confederate Government. There was no longer any doubt about it, the *Alabama* was lying in the roads in full view of all the godowns facing the beach, and here, knocking about, talking in an unconcerned yet affable manner, were the men who had held the torch to many a stately merchantman, and who had taken not a few thousands out of the pockets of some of the very merchants with whom they were standing side by side.

From the beach, a considerable way out, the long low black hull, with its raking masts and stumpy funnel, could be seen. There was no doubting her identity; and how other vessels could so often have been mistaken for her by those who had once seen her, it is difficult to understand. At ten o'clock in the morning she proceeded from her anchorage of the night to one of the wharves at New Harbour to take in a supply of coals; she moved with great rapidity, and yet made but a ripple in the water. The promontories of the land soon shut her out from the view of the town, and Captain Semmes caused a notice to appear in the newspapers that visitors could not then be received, as his ship was coaling, but that all who chose to inspect her on the following day would be gladly welcomed on board.

New Harbour is three miles distant from the town by the road, and next day carriages were at a premium, for natives of all classes, as well as the European residents, had determined to avail themselves of the opportunity to inspect a ship that will possess some place in the history of the present age. The excitement among the natives was the more remarkable; for they generally display no interest in events which do not purely relate to themselves. Seven years ago, at the time of the Chinese war, the town batteries were constantly saluting the arrivals of important plenipotentiaries in the finest ships of the British Navy, and yet seldom was even an inquiry ventured by the natives as to the cause of these unusual proceedings. All however, from the smallest boy to the grey-headed old patriarchs, could tell that the *Alabama* was in. They had learned her name, and flocked in crowds to see her. What their conjectures were concerning her, or what they could see about her more attractive than about the war-ships of three times her size and armament, which arrive in the roadstead at all seasons of the year, it is somewhat difficult to say. Some had doubtless learned her story, but the great mass must have been ignorant of it. Perhaps a clue to the interest they displayed might be found in the often repeated exclamations,—"Hantu, Kappal Hantu—'Ghost—ghost ship.'"

The *Alabama* is in appearance a small vessel, I should say barely of 1,000 tons register; she looks trim and compact, however, and likely to prove a match for a much larger enemy. She is very long

and very narrow: I paced her length as she lay along the wharf, and made it 210 feet, her breadth is barely 27 feet; and she is extremely low in the water. She is bark, but not full bark rigged, with long raking spars; and has the greatest spread of canvas in her fore and aft sails, which are of enormous size. I was assured that with canvas alone, under favourable circumstances, she has gone thirteen knots per hour; whether this be exaggerated or not, she must have great sailing powers, for one of the officers on board told me that she had only coaled three times since she had been in commission, before coming to Singapore. Her deck appeared to me slightly crowded for a fighting ship, but while she was taking in stores was not the best time to judge of this. Her engine-room is large, and her engines kept in beautiful order. She has made, they said, as much as fourteen knots under steam, but her ordinary speed was ten to eleven knots.

Her mounted armament consists of six 32-pounder broadside guns, and two large pivots, one 100-pounder rifled Blakely, placed forward, and the other a smooth bore 68-pounder. She is not a slimly built vessel as has been frequently represented, but is of thorough man-of-war build. The only action in which she had yet been engaged was off Galveston, when she was chased by the *Hatteras*. The action was a longer one than is generally believed, for it took eight broadsides of the *Alabama* to sink her enemy, and not one, as was reported. Her officers pointed me out several places where she had been damaged by the fire of the *Hatteras;* one was just under the main chains

where the shot had gone right through her side and lodged in the opposite timbers; one ball had hulled her a little before the foremast—low down—one struck her on the deck, close to her middle starboard broadside gun, nearly killing a number of the crew who were working it, and another shot went clean through her funnel. These are small scars for a ship eighteen months in commission during war time; but I could see that they were carefully cherished. Round the wheel, inlaid in large brass letters, I noticed the rather remarkable motto, "Aide toi, et Dieu t' aidera."

I was anxious to ascertain the loyalty of the crew, of which, according to late accounts, there were good reasons to doubt. When I went on board they were washing decks and cleaning up after coaling, by no means an occupation calculated to foster the most agreeable spirit in a sailor; and yet I must say I could remark no sign of impatience, much less of insubordination. Nor could I attribute this contented behaviour to fear of the officers, who were far from rough or domineering in their manners; so that I conclude whatever may be their hardships or the precarious nature of their pay and emoluments, the crew of the *Alabama* would stand by her in case of danger. The officers were all Americans, except two, an Englishman and a German. They were all fine men, and seem enthusiastic in the service on which they had adventured. Some of them admitted to me, however, that the capture and destruction of merchantmen had begun to lose its excitement, and I should not be

surprised, were the officers left to themselves, to learn that the *Alabama* had risked an encounter with the armed ships of her enemy; her commander however I should say was a man slow to move on a rash enterprise.

Captain Semmes is in appearance as well as in character a remarkable man. He is not tall, is thin and rather bilious-looking, and would consort much more readily to the picture of a Georgia cotton-planter than to that of a sailor. He speaks very little, but when he does allude to the Confederate States it is with a bold confidence as to their future fate, somewhat surprising in these latter days of Southern reverses. When the somewhat disheartening news for the Confederate cause just received by the previous mail was handed to him on his quarter-deck at New Harbour, he simply replied, pointing to the Confederate ensign above him,—"It is no matter; that flag never comes down." Time will tell whether or not his boast be a true one.

Whatever may be one's impressions when he sedately views the mission of the *Alabama*, it is impossible in the presence of the trim little ship herself not to be momentarily carried away by a sympathy for her cause; and perhaps some more tangible palliative than momentary enthusiasm may be urged in her favour. "You must remember, sir," said one of her officers to me, "that we but retaliate on our enemy that destruction of property which he has been the first to inaugurate in this war. His power at sea was by a simple chance too much for us to cope with from the first, or we should by this time

have had a small navy of our own, built in our own dockyards; and as we have been content to fight him in the field with a disparity of numbers, so we should have attacked him at sea with a weaker force. Such," he continued, "has not been our fortune; but it has been our fortune to obtain this and some few other ships, and to bring them to bear on our enemies' most salient point. General Gilmore himself, when he uses the advantage which the Federal ships have placed in his hands to destroy from his batteries the warehouses and mansions of Charleston,* endorses our course as legitimate. It is true, Charleston has its forts and batteries which do their best to protect these defenceless buildings, but does this alter the parallel? Is it confessed that the merchant shipping of the Federal Government can find no protection in the Federal navy? and if it is so confessed, is it urged that we should therefore hold back from the advantage which our enemies' defencelessness gives us in one particular, while he advantages to the full by our insufficiently protected state in another? No! when the Northern hordes pause on their onward raid by the consideration of the inability of the Confederate Government to afford protection to its cities, then may we too pause on our course, for the reason that the Federal Government cannot or will not spare ships from the blockade of Southern ports to protect her foreign shipping." It was a strong argument—as strong probably as could be urged, and it did not

* The news of the shelling of Charleston with Greek fire had reached Singapore by the previous mail from Europe.

lose its force from being put on the deck of the *Alabama*.

There the renowned ship lay, in calm unruffled water, making with a background of the beautiful green islands of New Harbour as pretty and as peaceful a picture as the eye could wish to gaze on.

On the morning of the 24th, at about ten o'clock, the *Alabama* proceeded out of New Harbour, to the westward, and her long low dark hull, raking spars, and short stumpy funnel, rapidly faded from the view of the green island of Singapore—probably for ever. But like Dundee and his blue-bonnets of old, if Singapore had seen the last of the *Alabama*, it certainly had not heard the last of her and Captain Semmes and his grey-coats. On the night of her departure from New Harbour, scarcely thirty miles off, she came up with and destroyed the British, or at least British registered barque *Martaban;* two days later she burned the American ships *Sonora* and *Highlander*, as they lay at anchor in the Straits of Malacca. Captain Semmes found means, too, to send back to Singapore a justification of his destruction of the first ship which appeared in the newspapers there, three days after the event.

In very few foreign ports could the proximity of the *Alabama* have created a more visible effect than it did at Singapore. At the beginning of the present year there were eighteen large American ships, aggregating over 12,000 tons' measurement, lying idle in the harbour, when there was a brisk demand for shipping. Fully one-half of that number changed owners

Vincent Brooks, lith.

THE "ALABAMA" AT ANCHOR IN NEW HARBOUR, SINGAPORE

shortly afterwards, and passed under another flag. I heard one of the officers of the *Alabama* remark:—"We don't care much whether or not we succeed in destroying any more of the enemy's merchantmen; we have done enough already, our presence alone in these waters will now suffice to ruin the eastern commerce of the Federal States." And truly the observation has come nearly to be realized. Besides these idle ships, there were no less than 120 men who had been cast adrift by the *Alabama*, maintained at Singapore at one time by the United States' consul. One crew had the singularly bad fortune to be burned out twice; they came up from Batavia after having been landed from on board the *Contest*, which was burned in the Java Sea, and shipped again at Singapore on board the *Sonora*—one of the vessels burned while at anchor in the Straits of Malacca. Certainly the *Alabama* will be remembered in Singapore.

CHAPTER X.

SOCIETY: ITS DIVISIONS—STYLE OF LIFE.

No Field for European Labours—Case in Illustration—None for Adventurers—Social Distinctions—Society in its restrictive Signification—Its Conservativeness—Its expensive Hospitality—Its Composition—Prejudice against Colour—Style of living—General Luxury—A Day's Life—Morning Walks—Cool Air and Beauty of Scenery—Breakfast—Drive to Town—Business—Tiffin—Fives Court—The Band—Drive Home—Dinner—Its substantial Nature—After-dinner Amusements.

THE consideration of the condition of European society in the Straits is brought within tolerably narrow limits. The great bulk of the population being composed of mixed Eastern races none of the laborious and very few of the meaner avocations fall to be performed by Europeans. The docks, the ship-building and repairing yards and engineering establishments are generally superintended by Englishmen or Scotchmen, who may perhaps at home have been common mechanics merely, but accustomed to the charge and control of large bodies of native labourers they are not long in casting off their outer crust and soon assume the appearance—as in fact they attain the position—of well-to-do overseers and managers. It would be a mistake however to imagine that the Straits Settlements present any field for the industry or enterprise of the

working classes at home, because those who have succeeded in planting themselves there may have been rapidly promoted. Their promotion, on the contrary, is the result of the very absence of the necessity for English labour. Two Chinese carpenters will generally do the labour of one European, and their wages together will amount to less than a half of what it would cost the European to live in even the meanest condition. It is head work or mechanical skill and knowledge only that are really demanded from the European; and although for want of better, men at first inferior in these respects have obtained positions of responsibility which they have afterwards creditably filled, still openings of this kind but very rarely occur. There is no more pitiable sight than to see, as are sometimes to be seen, strong able-bodied men willing to work whom accident has cast on these shores, seeking in vain for employment, till private or public charity affords them the means to regain some land where their labour can be turned to better account. Men of this sort not unfrequently find their way to Singapore from the Australian colonies; they come up in charge of horses, and are, according to agreement, discharged as soon as the horses are landed and sold. It is not only painful, but in a place where it is essential to keep up the prestige of the European, it is humiliating to witness the straits to which these men are sometimes brought. I remember one case in particular that came under my own notice and which may be taken as an example of many others. A fine healthy young fellow

about nineteen years old, who had not long landed from one of the Australian vessels, came to me to ask employment as a groom, a gardener, a coachman, or as a common labourer. He told me he must stay ashore, as the ship he had come in had sailed to Calcutta, and not being a sailor no other vessel would engage him; but he was confident in his own strength and sanguine that he would find something to do. I told him that I feared his application would be useless, but I did not like to discourage the poor fellow more than necessary. I gave him some directions and he left me. Ten days afterwards he came back, much of the ruddy health, or at least, colour of the colder latitude had gone, and there was also less assurance in his manner. Still however he seemed to think he could carve out a course for himself. He came now to seek, in the shape of a loan, some temporary assistance. Singapore is not illiberal or ungenerous, and without much difficulty he obtained the necessary relief. For some days after this I saw the poor fellow with gradually diminishing confidence of air going from godown to godown in search of employment. I have no doubt, though he could not obtain a demand for his services, that he must have for a time, at least, received freely of the money assistance of those whom he solicited. Continued disappointment however appeared in the end to have completely disheartened him, and for some weeks I saw nothing of him. One night, it might have been a month afterwards, returning home late from the despatch of an English mail, I heard a disturbance

proceeding from one of the low native toddy or arrack shops that are scattered through the town. I stopped to ascertain the cause, and with some difficulty obtained access to the den, where in a corner sitting up on a filthy mattress with some remnants of bedding around him, evidently unable of himself to move, was the same man who two months before had come before me with all the indications of robust health. I stooped over him, and it was a time before I could recognize him; the sunken eyes, hollow cheeks, and sallow hue of fever were there. Perhaps dissipation had had something to do with it, but the climate and the state in which he had lived had had more. I inquired into the cause of the disturbance and it turned out to be this: The poor fellow had from the first taken up his abode in that house, and at the beginning he must have been a most desirable lodger; it seems too that here he had exhausted, whether in drink or in the simple necessities of life I could not ascertain for certain, the funds which had been liberally given him in town. But his money was now done, and disease had overtaken him to the extent that prevented his seeking for more. The brutal Kling lodging-keepers who had at first been his slaves had turned upon him, and fearful lest the expenses of burial might have to be added to an already unsatisfied boarding account, they wished to turn him out into the streets. A woman, black, but still of soft heart, had interposed, and hence the altercation. The scene and the circumstances were humiliating enough to any European. That night the man slept at ease,

and next day saw him placed on board a vessel bound to a colder climate. The story is but a simple one and must have many counterparts in Singapore and elsewhere in India, and though its full bitterness can only be appreciated by those of Indian experience, its relation here may have a wholesome effect in deterring an unwarranted and unwise influx of men of this class from Europe or the Australian colonies.

But not only with respect to labouring men and common mechanics should a warning voice be raised. To adventurers of all sorts Singapore is a most unlikely field; and unless with some distinct appointment in view, or armed with a profession, or with the means and the ready-formed connections necessary to start an independent business, I should recommend no one to emigrate there. Very few instances indeed have come to my notice where any young men coming out entirely "on chance" have succeeded in obtaining openings which are likely to lead to independent positions. The rule adopted by the English mercantile houses there is to make all their engagements at home; indeed, the nomination to these is a sort of patronage which is left in the hands of the senior partners usually resident there. With the continental houses it is slightly different, and an Englishman of good parts may at times obtain an opening in these which will ultimately lead to partnership, owing, no doubt, to the advantage which a good command of the English language gives to foreign merchants in an English settlement.

It may be doubted by some whether, properly

speaking, there is any intermediate class of European society between the section I have at first spoken of, or, in point of fact, the less lettered members of the community, and those who form the upper class and lead society. It is dangerous to attempt to draw too many and too fine distinctions, for they are apt to become interminable; but yet it would give a decidedly false impression of the social organization of Singapore were I to disregard the very formidable barrier which confines "society" in its usual acceptation to a rather limited section. Between those in this society and such persons as are merely in charge of mechanical establishments, or hold appointments requiring skill rather than education, a numerous and important division of the European population exists, beginning with those immediately removed from the latter, and extending upwards to those that are just on the threshold of the former. It would be a very hard task, and a slightly invidious one, to point out the general characteristics of this middle section. In some cases the distinction is deserved, but in very many more it is not; and in the ranks of this intermediate class are those who, in every good and intellectual quality, and by birth and education as well, are more than the equals of those who have chosen some means of attaining their wealth more consonant to the local dictum of society. It is worthy of observation, however, that most of these distinctions exist only in domestic relationship.

Society in its restrictive signification in Singapore is not unfrequently the subject of remark and some-

times of animadversion. Faultless, it certainly is not. But that it has faults in any greater degree than other foreign settlements, I am inclined very seriously to doubt. It may be said to be strongly conservative, but it is not a conservativeness based upon the low standard of pounds, shillings, and pence. The man of narrow means has often the doors thrown wide open to him, while his wealthy neighbour is left to grope about in utter darkness. But while a nearly complete disregard is paid to wealth, a too great watchfulness of position is evinced. I do not say that the line drawn at Government House is too circumscribed, but all the distinctions which are necessarily made there need not be made outside of it; nor need fresh ones be drawn, as is often the case. The community is a very small one. There are not, I think, over forty families who aim to form a part of society, and if I might offer an opinion on so very delicate a subject, it would be that, among so few, a more general, even though less intimate, intercourse should spring up.

Whatever it may be under the new regime, the official world has certainly not hitherto taken a prominent lead in social affairs. But this is doubtless accounted for by the expensive nature of hospitality as practised in these parts. To Government officers who receive fixed salaries, the cost of housekeeping must be a more serious consideration than to the merchants whose profits on a single venture may outbid the highest salary in the land. Probably nothing has served to preserve certain distinctions so much as this expensiveness of hospitality, and the extent

to which it is practised. To an extreme it must be indulged in but by few, and as it cannot long live unless it is reciprocal, it degenerates too often into little better than an account current system of entertainment. Latterly, there has been apparent some approach to improvement in this respect, which it is to be hoped if of slow will be of sure growth. The people of Singapore must come to appreciate what long experience taught the Dutch in Java, that heavy dinner-parties are scarcely suited either to the climate or to the purses of settlers anxious to push their way to fortune. In Batavia dinner-parties are now of rare occurrence; the much more sensible fashion prevails of giving occasional evenings "at home," at which people can reasonably enjoy themselves without danger of morning attacks of indigestion.

Society may be said to be composed of the chief Government officials, the merchants and bankers with their assistants and clerks—the lawyers, the doctors, and the military,—at least, any of those positions *primâ facie* give the necessary social status. Unfortunately however, here as elsewhere, circumstances occasionally combine to render the best of these positions unavailing, and it is not always owing to the faults of those who are excluded, but sometimes to their misfortunes. One of the chief of these impediments appears to be an insuperable, though a somewhat over-sensitive objection taken to all who are descended in any way from the people of India, no matter how remote the descent; and it has happened more than once at a ball, that one lady has refused to

dance opposite another because her *vis-à-vis* was slightly darker than herself in complexion. There can be no real necessity for such extreme sensibility as this.

It is to the merchants chiefly that Singapore is indebted for the introduction of its very expensive, though very pleasant style of hospitality. Their dinners are affairs of every week; they possess the charm of being at once magnificent and unrestrained, and they do much to maintain a spirit of emulation in household luxuriance. It is wonderful how perfect, too, is the knowledge possessed of the measure of hospitality of each house, and how soon new arrivals and visitors become acquainted with the comparative degrees of excellence in this respect. The discreet bachelor scarcely allows a week after his landing to pass by before he makes his calls upon the residents; and it is remarkable how closely they follow in the ascertained order of hospitality. The military, however, have the credit, and with every appearance of justice, of being the most accurate and rapid in their discovery of this desirable information. They scent the quarry from afar off, and come down upon it with singularly good success. In addition to household hospitality, picnics to various parts of the island are of frequent occurrence. As can be inferred from the description I have given of its scenery, the island is in every way favourable to these, and so, also, is the weather, in spite of the extreme noon-day heat. A few public balls, too, are scattered throughout the year—on the occasion of the races, of the opening of a public

building, or the arrival or departure of some important personage.

But even the ordinary style of living in Singapore may be set down as luxurious, and this to a degree that could not well be indulged at home on similar means. Any distinction, too, in this respect between one class and another is merely of degree. All have alike that exemption from the necessity of positive exertion in domestic concerns, which a large supply of native labour gives. There is also an abundance of what at home would be termed rare delicacies, and with which even on the spot, the taste never completely palls. Neither are the substantials of the table so expensive as to render an economy of these necessary. The tables of the wealthiest are to be distinguished from those of the poorest, rather by the lavish supply of European preserves and condiments—and, of course, by a draft from a choicer and more extensive cellar, than by any greater abundance or variety of dishes. Again, every one has his stable—though the poor man may have but one steed, and the rich man a dozen.

To give a correct idea of the everyday life of the European it is necessary rather to distinguish between the unmarried and the married, than between the man of narrow and the man of extended means. Most of the bungalows, as I have before mentioned, are about two miles from town; nearly all, at least, are within hearing range of the 68-pounder gun on Fort Canning, the discharge of which each morning at five o'clock ushers in the day. This is the accepted signal of all

old residents to start from bed, the younger however, usually indulge in an extra half-hour's slumber. Still, six o'clock generally sees all dressed and out of doors, to enjoy a couple of miles walk or ride through the lovely country roads, in the delicious coolness of morning, before the sun's rays become disagreeably powerful.

The air at this hour is of that temperature which may be described as a little colder than cool, and it has a sharpness which I have experienced only in the early mornings of tropical countries, or on a frosty day at home. A slight mist, too, rises from the ground, that, whether it does in reality lend any measure of coolness, certainly by association gives a frosty aspect to nature. Indeed I have often, when setting out on my walk at sunrise, been positively startled by the resemblance of sharp frost. All over the grassy patches of lawn, on the shrubs and bushes, and on the roadside hedges, a species of spider work their fine cobwebs upon which the dew is caught and held in minute pearly drops, giving exactly the appearance of hoar frost; add to this, the rising mist, the sharp air, and the red sun just showing his upper limb above the hills, or peering through a low-lying bank of clouds, and the illusion is tolerably complete. I may remark that, throughout the year there is barely thirty minutes difference in the hour of the sun's rising. In June and December it dawns about quarter past five, in March and September at a quarter to six.

I have already partly described the appearance of the country or suburban roads, but if beautiful at any

time, they are certainly much more so during the two first hours of morning. The rich, green, wall-like bamboo hedges which generally line those parts of the roads which border the various residences, sparkle with large drops of dew, and from many of these that have been newly clipped may be seen shoots of over a foot in height, the growth of a single night. The trees, which are almost all evergreens, have also their large leaves wet and glistening with the refreshing moisture. Here and there, too, a strip of jungle-covered land is passed, from which breathes forth the last fragrant airs of the night blossoms. Everything living seems to share the vigorous freshness; the birds that are hushed in shelter during the mid-day heat now chirp and carol forth their short and musical notes.

Nor are these morning walks always given over to solitary commune with nature. At no other hour of the day are the roads out of town so lively with Europeans. One can always depend upon picking up a companion, and getting and giving all the little gossip of the night before; or more seriously discussing the last China or Europe mail news. During these walks, too, may be encountered pretty nearly the entire rising generation of European parentage—the heirs and heiresses, to be, of Singapore's merchants, who with their ayahs or native nurses are sent to "makan angin"—literally, "eat" the morning air.

Than this practice of exercise in the early morning, there is, perhaps, none to which the inhabitants of

Singapore are more indebted for their singularly good health. It has an effect quite opposite to fatigue; and whether it be considered as a corrective of the previous evening's dinner and its accompaniments, or simply as a means of bracing up one's nerves for the day's labour, it is invaluable. Most people limit their walks to two miles, or about half an hour; but this is by no means a rule. Some go as far as four, five, or six miles in a morning; these are the early birds who start at gun-fire sharp, and they are in the minority. I know one gentleman, now nearer seventy than sixty years old, who is out of doors at five each morning, goes a round of six miles, and comes back to his tea at about half-past six. He has kept up this practice during forty years of residence, and has reaped his reward in still robust health, strong nerve, clear head, and a yet lively enjoyment of the good things of life.

During the training season for the races, it is at this hour that the horses are taken their rounds, and the course then forms to a great many the limit of their walk. As early as half-past four the syces or native grooms are up preparing their horses, and start a little after gun-fire for the course, a distance of about two miles. At sunrise the horses commence to go their rounds, and as they wait their turns, it is generally half-past six before all have been exercised. As the distance is to most a tolerably long one, the stewards provide tea on the course, so that it is altogether a very favourite resort for about six weeks before both the spring and autumn meetings. Very

little training takes place privately; but still some horses have occasionally been met returning from the course before daylight. The Malays however have a superstition connected with this "moonlight training," which is not favourable to it. A few years ago an owner, anxious to test his horse's strength and speed in secret, had him taken to the course about two o'clock in the morning; some Malays who lived on the borders of the course saw the horse saddled, mounted, and started. He went round, they aver, once, twice, thrice, gaining in speed each time; the fourth time he passed like a bird, the fifth time like lightning, and the sixth time nothing but a blast of wind went by. Certainly the horse was never seen on the course again, and so the Malays think he must have been translated into the spiritual world, where both horse and rider are still going their rounds with undiminished velocity.

On coming home from these morning rounds, the custom is to get into loose, free and easy attire, generally baju and pajamas. A cup of coffee or tea, with biscuit or bread-and-butter and fruit, is then consumed, and the next two hours spent in reading, writing, or lolling about in the verandahs which front each apartment of a house. I have said reading, writing, or lolling about; but, more correctly speaking, the time is devoted to a combination of the first and the last. In the daily avocation of most, the pen is pretty actively handled; and unless at mail times, or by those of a literary turn of mind, it is seldom taken up out of office. Reading is generally accom-

plished in the extremely reclining posture for which the verandah chairs of Singapore are so admirably adapted; and no doubt a deal of "quiet contemplation" must be gone through in the same attitude, in fact, perhaps, more than is generally conceded. The "dolce far niente" has its charms here as well as elsewhere, and what is more, it has a good excuse.

At half-past eight the breakfast dressing gong or bell is sounded. A gentleman's toilette in this part of the east is not an elaborate one, and half an hour is ample time for its completion. The bath is its chief feature. Attached to the dressing-room of each bedroom in almost all houses is a bath-room, with brick-tiled floor, containing a large bathing jar holding about sixty or seventy gallons of water. The orthodox manner of bathing is to stand on a small wooden grating close to the jar, and with a hand bucket to dash the water over the body. This is by no means such an unsatisfactory method as to the uninitiated it may appear. The successive shocks to the system which are obtained by the discharge of each bucketful of water, seems to have a much more bracing effect than that of one sudden and continued immersion. Every gentleman has his native boy * or body servant, whose sole duty it is to attend upon him personally. While bathing, these boys lay out their master's apparel for the day; so that on coming from the bath a gentleman has little trouble to get himself attired. As to shaving the process is

* The term boy is applied to all servants of this class, whatever their age. Some of these "boys" are grey-haired men of over sixty.

generally performed by itinerant Hindoo barbers, who for the small charge of a dollar or a dollar and a half per month come every morning round to the residences of their customers. The charge is so small, and the saving in trouble so great, that almost all avail themselves of the convenience.

The universal breakfast hour is nine o'clock, and when the bell then rings the whole household assemble, and should there be ladies of the number this is the first time of their appearance. Singapore breakfasts, though tolerably substantial and provided with a goodly array of dishes, are rarely dwelt over long, half an hour, being about the time devoted to them. A little fish, some curry and rice, and perhaps a couple of eggs, washed down with a tumbler or so of good claret, does not take long to get through and yet forms a very fair foundation on which to begin the labours of the day. After breakfast the conveyances drive round to the porch or portico and having received their owners hasten in to town. No matter how many may reside together, each bachelor has generally his own "turn-out;" and for half an hour every morning the two bridges leading across the river into town present an endless string of these rather motley vehicles—by no means an uninteresting spectacle. On the whole both the private conveyances and horses of Singapore are creditable to it, though the same cannot be said for the miserable pony hack-gharries that are let out on hire. A large number of horses are brought up from Australia, not less I should say than 100 each year, and all find a sale at what must be remunerative

prices.' None are ever exported again, and where they all go to it is difficult to conjecture, for the European population who chiefly make use of them increases but slowly, and yet horseflesh is not subject to greater mortality here than elsewhere. The climate seems to agree well with them; they grow fat and sleek and live long, though they can scarcely go through the same amount of work as in their native country; each horse has its groom and grass-cutter, and probably the additional attention they receive compensates for the exhausting temperature.

Arrived in town, ten minutes or a quarter of an hour are usually spent in going the rounds of the square to learn the news of the morning. These commercial square gatherings are quite a characteristic of the place and of the community, and whatever channels they may open to the flow of local gossip, or it might even be scandal, yet they are so far useful that they serve the purpose of an open air and non-commercial exchange. Differences of position are in most cases left behind in office, and all meet here on a footing of equality, or if there is any ascendancy at all it is that which is obtained by the readiest wit or perhaps by the greatest measure of self-assurance. As scarcely a day passes without the arrival of a steamer with news from England, China, India, or from some interesting point in the neighbourhood, there is always ample material for an animated exchange of ideas and information on leading topics, whether they be European politics, the war in America, the position of affairs in China, the com-

bined action at Japan, the affairs of India, Java, Borneo, the administration of the local Government, or the condition and prospects of the adjacent markets.

This sort of congress takes place between the first arrival in town and ten or half-past ten o'clock. At that hour business has commenced and continues in full force till tiffin time, or one o'clock; and certainly it is gone through in quite as smart and active a manner as at home. The climate, though it may produce a greater languor in the evening, has apparently no such effect during the day. There is not much out-of-door bustle; but still when occasion requires the folks post about the square under the midday sun at a lively pace and with apparent impunity.

Tiffin time does not bring the luxurious abandonment to the table which it does in Java; people in Singapore are more moderate in their indulgence, yet some show of a meal is in most cases made; a plate of curry and rice and some fruit or it may be a simple biscuit with a glass of beer or claret. Half an hour's relaxation too is generally indulged in, and as the daily newspaper comes out about this hour, there is a goodly flocking either to the exchange or the public godowns in the square for a perusal of it.

Two o'clock is the exchange hour, and though I do not think there is really much intercommunication on commercial subjects, yet as a rendezvous and a place where the leading men of the mercantile world can have an interchange of ideas even on

irrelevant matters, it has the good effect of promoting and maintaining a more general intimacy than might otherwise prevail. Unlike the chamber of commerce, from which it is distinct, the exchange as a body assumes no political influences, and is thus no doubt saved many a humiliating experience which it has fallen to the lot of the former body to encounter. The exchange is rather distinguished for its hearty and mixed co-operation in all that tends to ameliorate or enliven the condition of life in the settlement.

Business hours are not particularly severe, and by half-past four or five o'clock most of the mercantile houses have got through their work. But only a few proceed direct home at this hour; the greater number, at least of the younger members of the community, resort to the fives-court or the cricket-ground on the esplanade. The former is an institution of long standing in Singapore; as far back as thirty years ago it was erected, and at no time since then has the interest taken in the game subsided. On the contrary, about two years ago it was found necessary to build another court out at Tanglin about two miles from town in the vicinity of the residences, so greatly had the number of members increased. The game is well-known at home, and I need not describe it further than to say that it is a kind of rackets, but that the hands instead of bats are used to play up the ball and that consequently the exercise is much more severe. It is really surprising, in a temperature seldom ranging at the hour the game is played below 82°, to see those who have gone through a fair day's work

at the desk come here and doff their vests, coats, and shirts to an hour or an hour and a half of about the most severe exercise in which it is possible to engage; and this too in an unroofed building with the rays of the sun if not directly beating down, at least reflected in fierce glare from the whitewashed walls. And yet medical men attribute the extreme good health of the residents to this continued exercise indulged in, begun by the morning walk at sunrise and ending with cricket or fives at sunset. Cricket is of course precisely the same game in Singapore as it is at home.

But there are two evenings in the week when the whole European community may generally be seen upon the esplanade, whether or not they be fives or cricket-players, and these are band evenings, generally Tuesdays and Fridays. The band, which is that of the regiment on the station at the time, or from one of the men-of-war which occasionally visit the port, plays on a raised mound on the centre of the esplanade green. The chains which protect the green on ordinary occasions are on these evenings let down, and carriages, horsemen, and pedestrians are alike admitted to the greensward. Gathered round the band in a tolerably broad circle are the beauty and fashion of the place. The ladies, to whom almost all the other outdoor amusements are denied, partake at least in this, and though the ruddy glow of the colder latitudes has fled from most cheeks, still there supervenes a languid softness which is more interesting and perhaps more beautiful. The pretty pale-faced European children too may on these occasions be seen tripping about in

playfulness a little less boisterous, but quite as cheerful as is witnessed at home. The band plays from half-past five till half-past six, at which hour it is all but dark, when the carriages make for home in a long string, gradually falling off one by one as the various residences are reached.

Except on band nights however, most of the commercial and all of the official world retire home a little before six o'clock. Arrived there, probably a glass of sherry and bitters will anticipate the refreshing process of dressing for dinner. A slight difference as to dinner-hour prevails; some dine at half-past six, some at seven; the former however is the time most commonly adopted. There is one advantage here which is too seldom to be found in other parts of the world. Whatever may be the hour, a clock-work regularity and punctuality is observed, and this not with respect to dinner only, but with respect to all other meals. No doubt this regularity also has its share in the maintenance of the good health of the European community.

Dinner in Singapore is not the light airy meal which might reasonably be imagined from the nature of the climate; on the contrary, it is quite as substantial a matter of fact as in the very coldest latitudes. The difference is not that the substantials are fewer, but that the luxuries are more numerous. Indeed the every-day dinner of Singapore, were it not for the waving punkahs, the white jackets of the gentlemen, and the gauzy dresses of the ladies, the motley array of native servants, each standing behind his master's

or mistress's chair, and the goodly display of argand lamps, might not unreasonably be mistaken for some more special occasion at home. Soup and fish generally both precede the substantials, which are of a solid nature, consisting of roast beef or mutton, turkey or capon, supplemented by side-dishes of tongue, fowl, cutlets, or such like, together with an abundant supply of vegetables, including potatoes nearly equal to English ones grown in China or India, and also cabbages from Java. The substantials are invariably followed by curry and rice which forms a characteristic feature of the tables of Singapore, and though Madras and Calcutta have been long famed for the quality of their curries, I nevertheless think that those of the Straits exceed any of them in excellence. There are usually two or more different kinds placed on the table, and accompanying them are all manner of sambals or native pickles and spices, which add materially to the piquancy of the dish.

During the progress of the substantials and of the curry and rice, the usual beverage is beer, accompanied by a glass or two of pale sherry. The good folks of Singapore are by no means inclined to place too narrow restrictions on their libations, and it has been found in the experience of older residents that a liberality in this respect conduces to good health and long life. Besides this the American Tudor Company keeps up a tolerably regular supply of ice, and as it is sold at three cents, or less than 1½*d.* per lb., it is within the reach of all, and is an invariable adjunct to all beverages.

To curry and rice succeeds generally some sort of pudding or preserve, but sweets have not the same temptation here as at home. Very good cheese however is obtained in fortnightly supplies by the overland steamers, and, as good fresh butter is always to be had, this part of dinner is well enjoyed, accompanied as it is by no illiberal allowance of excellent pale ale. But it is in the luxuriance of the dessert perhaps more than anything else that the tables of Singapore are to be distinguished, and it is little wonder that it should be so; for there is no season of the year at which an abundance of fruit cannot be obtained. Pineapple may be considered the stock fruit of the island, and one or two splendid specimens of these generally adorn the table. There are plantains, ducoos, mangoes, rambutans, pomeloes, and mangosteens; the latter fruit is peculiar to the Straits of Malacca and to Java, and so great is its fame that to India or China no present or gift from Singapore is more acceptable than a basket of them. It is of a somewhat singular genus; it is round, of the size of a small orange, is covered with a thick woody purple bark in place of rind, which has to be cut or broken off, and inside are the snowy-white cloves of the pulp, sweet and with a very delicate but delicious flavour, unlike anything else I know of. But though dessert generally makes a finer display than any other part of dinner, it is not that to which most attention is directed. A cigar and a glass or two of sherry after the ladies are gone, and dinner is over.

Many of the residences have billiard-rooms attached,

in which case the usual custom is to retire there after dinner. Where no billiard-room is within reach, a chat in the verandah, a little meditation, or perhaps a book passes the hours pleasantly enough until bed-time. And as dinner is seldom over before eight o'clock, and the usual hour for rest is ten, it is not a very long interval between them that has to be disposed of.

As I have remarked before I think it is to be regretted that the people of Singapore so determinedly set their faces against every sort of entertainment which does not include a dinner. I am quite sure that much of the after-dinner time, that is under the present system in a manner thrown away, might be more agreeably, and at the same time more profitably spent, if the custom were to set in that people should meet occasionally after dinner, and pass their evenings in the same sort of social intercourse as is usual at home, and in most other parts of the world.

Such is the everyday life at Singapore. It is true, I have taken rather an uncommon method of describing it, and one which might be thought more to become the pages of a journal or diary, than a book such as this, but it appears to me that by thus detailing the various acts of the day as they succeed one another, I shall have carried out more effectually the object I have in view, and presented a clearer picture of the nature of the European's life there to the people at home, than had I confined myself more to generalities.

CHAPTER XI.

PENANG: SETTLEMENT—PROGRESS—SCENERY.

Introduction—Object of the Settlement—Founded by Mr. Light in 1786—Its formal Inauguration—Early Contentions between the Officials and Merchants—Death of Mr. Light—Proposed Abandonment—Major McDonald—Continued Contentions—Contumacy of the Merchants—Death of Major McDonald—Sir George Leith succeeds—Extension of Establishment—Annexation of Province Wellesley—Penang becomes a Presidency in 1805—First Recorder arrives—Rapid succession of Governors—Eccentricities of the Recorder—Deficiency of the Revenue—Lord Bentinck's Arrival—Scenery—Approach—Town and Shipping—The "Valley"—The High Lands—The Waterfall—View from Government Hill—Climate—Society.

PENANG, the earliest British possession in the Straits of Malacca, though its importance is cast into the shade by the magnificence into which the younger settlement of Singapore has grown, retains, nevertheless, an interest of its own. Its history is the history of the first great efforts made by the East India Company to obtain a footing in the native States of the Malay peninsula, and to set up a commercial and naval depôt, that, while it would prove of incalculable service to them as a midway station between their seat of Government and China, would also enable them to exercise a wholesome influence in the affairs

of the Eastern Archipelago, from which the Dutch seemed to be rapidly excluding them.

Nor is it in point of historical interest only that it claims notice; a commerce of fully four millions sterling annually is too considerable an item in British trade to give the dependency that possesses it no commercial significance. And it must also be borne in mind, as was stated in the previous chapters of this book, that the trade of Penang stands on a far more secure basis than that of Singapore, its exports being chiefly the production of its own soil, and that of Province Wellesley, which is incorporated with it; while, on the other hand, its imports are of equally local consumption. The cultivation of these products, too, which brings its exports up to so considerable a figure, forms of itself a matter of interesting study.

In point of size the island of Penang is considerably less than that of Singapore, being some 13 miles long by 10 broad, and containing an area of about 70,000 acres. It lies on the west coast of the Malay peninsula, in lat. 5° 24′ N., and long. 100° 21′ E., and having the northern point of the island of Sumatra lying to southward and westward of it at a distance of less than 100 miles, may be said to guard the north-western gate to the Straits of Malacca. It is separated from the mainland of the peninsula by a small belt of sea at its narrowest point, not wider than three miles. The territory opposite, for some years after the island of Penang was in the hands of the Company, continued the property of the Sultan or Rajah of Quedah,

from whom Penang itself had been purchased; but in 1800 a strip of this territory measuring twenty-five miles long by four or five broad, and fronting Penang, was purchased and added to the settlement under the title of Province Wellesley.

Penang was founded in 1786, after the Company had held Bencoolen on the south-west coast of Sumatra, near the Straits of Sunda, for just one century. Bencoolen had never been a satisfactory station however, costing far more for its government than was returned to the coffers of the Company from its own produce, or the trade it created. It seems indeed to have been held merely as a supplement to the Company's power in the far east, and as a counterpoise to the growth of the Dutch ascendancy in the Archipelago. But even these objects it failed to secure to any extent, as it offered no facilities for the provisioning or repair of the Company's ships, and was removed out of the highway of the China and Indian trade. It was with the view therefore, in a great measure, to obtain what Bencoolen failed to give that Penang was founded.

As far back as 1771, in the time of the great Warren Hastings, the settlement of the island was first contemplated. Mr. Light, its founder, in a letter dated 1787, says,—"So long ago as 1771, I wrote to Mr. Hastings particularly concerning the country of Quedah, and the utility of Pulo Penang as a commercial port, recommending it as a convenient magazine for Eastern trade. I had then an idea of a naval port being necessary on this side of India, and before the commencement of last war was convinced of the

jealousy of the Dutch, and their endeavours to exclude the British entirely from any part of the Eastern commerce." A plan was not long afterwards formed to carry out a settlement as indicated, but the breaking out of the war with France delayed it, and it was not till 1786 that Pulo Penang came formally under British dominion.

Mr. Francis Light who thus early contemplated the occupation of the island was the master of a merchantman who had traded a great deal with the native States of the peninsula, and more especially with that of Quedah to which Pulo Penang belonged. A story was for a long time told by the early settlers in Penang that during his intercourse with the State of Quedah, Mr. Light had wooed and won the affections of the Rajah's daughter, one of those comely maidens who are still beautiful though of dusky hue, that he had married her according to the rites of her country, receiving from her father as dower the jungle island of Pulo Penang which then contained but a few fishing huts on its eastern shores, and that he afterwards sold his wife's dower to the Company for the comfortable annuity of 10,000 dollars. The story however has no good foundation. Mr. Light was a man of high principle and unselfish in nature; and, besides, the annuity of 10,000 dollars is received to the present day by the Rajah of Quedah, to whom in Mr. Light's lifetime it also appears to have been regularly paid.

It was on the 16th of July, 1786, that the Company's ships, *Eliza*, *Speedwell*, and *Prince Henry*, first anchored opposite the sandy point where Fort Corn-

wallis now stands, and they came with all the men and material necessary to lay the foundation of the new settlement. Early on the morning of the 17th Mr. Light disembarked with the marines and Lascars and the small body of European officers who had accompanied him. On landing they found extending down to the strip of sand on which the boats had grated nothing but a dense jungle with an impenetrable undergrowth of shrubs and creepers. Immediately skirting the sand at one or two points where a few fishing-huts stood were some clusters of the tall slender areca palm-tree, the Penang of the Malay, and from which the island takes its name. The reduction of the jungle was immediately commenced, but it seems to have been no easy task. In his diary of the 29th July Mr. Light records that, "In cutting the trees our axes, hatchets, and handbolts suffer much; the wood is so exceeding hard that the tools double like a piece of lead." In the end the work had to be chiefly entrusted to the Malays who gathered around them from the mainland. It is said that even their patience frequently gave way and they were often on the point of abandoning the work, but that Mr. Light, on several occasions when their spirits were at the lowest ebb, administered a somewhat novel incentive by loading a cannon with a small bag of dollars in place of grape and discharging it right into the thick of the uncleared jungle; in the search for these dollars the undergrowth at all events was sure to be cleared away.

About a month after landing a considerable patch

of land in the locality of the present fort and esplanade was cleared, and a few temporary barracks and houses erected. On the 10th of August two of the Company's ships, the *Vansittart* and the *Valentine*, anchored in sight of the clearing and sent their boats on shore with despatches from Madras. It was now that Mr. Light inaugurated on the island that hospitality which so long characterized it while in the Company's possession, and we find him modestly chronicling in his official diary of that day that, "I wrote to the captains and requested their company ashore for a few hours in the evening." What was the nature of their evening entertainment in the temporary shed that served for a Government House, with the newly-hewn jungle all around, is not mentioned; but it must have been satisfactory, for the captains returned again on the following morning and Mr. Light fixed upon that day for taking formal possession of the island. He records the event in his faithful journal in the following words: "August 11th.—Captains Wall and Lewin came ashore with several passengers. Saluted them with nine guns. Thought this the most favourable opportunity for taking a formal possession of the island. At noon assembled all the gentlemen under the flag, who unitedly hoisted the flag, taking possession of the island in the name of His Britannic Majesty and for the use of the Honourable East India Company; the artillery and ships firing a royal salute, the marines three volleys." Such was the manner of the establishment of a dependency which has come through many vicissi-

tudes and many alternatives of good and bad government, but has survived them all, and at the present moment, nearly eighty years afterwards, possesses a trade of nearly four millions sterling annually.

From 1786 till 1794 Penang continued under the government of Mr. Light. During those eight years the progress made was considerable, and a compact little township stood with its fort and public buildings on the once jungle-covered point upon which the expedition had first landed. Up to this period the European residents, official and non-official, had continued very much as one family; though, from the old records still extant, there appears to have been no lack of family quarrels and dissensions. From the Governor, or Superintendent, as he was then called, downwards, all the officials dabbled in trade and might be seen between the discharge of their official duties haggling with the natives about the prices of all sorts of produce and merchandise. It seems also that they traded at some advantage over the other residents, for all produce brought to the island for sale had first to be submitted to the Government officers before it was taken to the merchants. This was a constant source of bad feeling; and though the advantage appears to have been very moderately used by the officials, yet the bare existence of such a state of matters was sufficient to drive away all ordinary commerce. Mr. Light in his letters to the Government at Calcutta urgently requested that the public servants of the Company, himself among the number, should be deprived of this trading privilege

and receive extended salaries instead; but his recommendations were disregarded.

In 1794 Mr. Light died, and it was then seriously contemplated to abandon the island, and perhaps to form a settlement on one or other of the Andamans. Major Kid was directed to report upon the relative merits of the old, and the newly-projected settlement, and his report seems to have been so favourable to the retention of Penang, that the idea of its abandonment was laid aside. It does not appear however that any successor to Mr. Light was appointed for three years after his death, and it is probable that the duties of superintendent were during that time discharged by one of the inferior local officers. In 1796 Major MacDonald became superintendent, though it is not recorded from whose hands he received the reins of Government. Early in his administration he experienced the evil effects of that rivalry in commerce between the officials and the merchants which had so disturbed Mr. Light, and he addressed long remonstrances on the subject to Calcutta. His very first letter contains the following remarkable but quite characteristic passage:—"The history of the island since its establishment under the British flag, is only to be gathered from the journal and ledger of a certain mercantile house, which indebted for its uncommon prosperity to the preponderating weight it derived from having as its principal and most ostensible head the Company's superintendent, and the convenient command of the public treasury, is too much interested in defeating all retrospective inquiry to allow more

to transpire than what the publicity of certain mercantile transactions forbid it to dissemble, or to be gleaned with caution from its equally anxious although less favoured competitors, who are not backward in their attempt to prove by no scanty store of anecdotes that to the accomplishment of its interested views was, too frequently for the general good, most avowedly sacrificed the real interest of the infant settlement."

Major MacDonald however appears to have been a man of more firmness if not severity of disposition than Mr. Light, and he went heartily to war with the difficulties that surrounded him. Under the somewhat friendly administration of the first superintendent, and the three years interregnum which appears to have followed, the merchants had grown as the major terms it "a most contumacious body," and he directed his attention first to the reduction of these traders to a proper understanding of their position. In virtue of powers entrusted to him by the Government at Calcutta, he addressed a circular letter to all the non-official residents somewhat in the nature of that which Mr. Fullerton long afterwards resorted to in Singapore, demanding to know the authority or permission by which they resided there, and requesting them to report their names and characters, that the propriety of withdrawing or continuing such permission might be determined on.

The replies to this general interrogatory form a very fair confirmation of the charge of contumacy, and show anything but a respectful or even conciliatory

disposition on the part of the merchants. One of the replies is sufficiently characteristic to be singled out; it is from a Mr. Mason, and is addressed to Major MacDonald:—

"Sir,— . . . . I beg leave to inform you for the information of the Governor-General in Council that my authority or permission to reside in India is from his Majesty King George the Third—*God save him!*—also from Superintendent Francis Light, Esq., the public faith being pledged for that purpose. . . . . And as to my character I shall take particular care that it be laid before the Governor-General in Council." When the writer of this letter was afterwards asked regarding the nature of the Royal authority which he pleaded, he is said to have referred Major MacDonald for particulars to his Majesty King George the Third.

It does not appear, however, that much good came of this warfare, and Major MacDonald ill pleased with the result of his labours and the position in which he felt himself placed, and broken in health, obtained leave of absence, and died in 1799 while away from the island. But in spite of these bickerings between the mercantile and the official world, the substantial prosperity of the island had been steadily progressive; both its commerce and its revenue had increased; and in 1800 the Earl of Mornington, who was then Governor-General, sent down Sir George Leith in the exalted capacity of lieutenant-governor and commander-in-chief, with Mr. Phillips, his secretary, and Mr. Dickens, a barrister of some reputation, as judge;

Mr. Caunter, who had acted as superintendent after the death of Major MacDonald, became first assistant under Mr. Phillips. A few months after his arrival Sir George Leith, having purchased from the Rajah of Quedah the tract of land opposite Penang, now known as Province Wellesley, took formal possession of it on the 7th of July, by planting the British colours on the point at the mouth of the Prye river. The amount of purchase money, 2,000 dollars, for nearly 150 square miles of territory, was not great, but it was probably the full value. The chief object of adding it to the Company's possessions was to extirpate piracy in the neighbourhood of Penang, by depriving the marauders of their favourite and most convenient resort.

At this time the brilliant prospects of nutmeg and spice planting which had just been introduced afforded a strong stimulus both to the exertions of Government and private individuals. In 1801, too, a ship of some 800 tons was completed and launched on the island, and it was hoped by many that ship-building might ultimately be a large source of wealth to the settlement. The revenues rapidly improved, and in the year 1805 approached for the first time to within 2,000 dollars of the ordinary expenditure. Altogether the Council at Calcutta looked with hopeful satisfaction on the settlement, and were inclined to sanction a somewhat lavish expenditure upon it. In 1805 more than 70,000 dollars were expended upon the forts, and in the same year it was resolved to supersede Mr. Farquhar, who had administered the Government since

the retirement of Sir George Leith in 1803, by a governor and council, and to constitute Penang into a regular presidency.

In September, 1805, Mr. Dundas, the first independant governor, arrived with his council, which consisted of two members, besides himself and commandant; the other functionaries of the new establishment numbered twenty-seven individuals. Mr. Dundas administered for two years, when he died at the early age of forty-five; it was a painful coincidence that he, his wife, and the first member of his council, Mr. Montague, were all carried to the same cemetery within a fortnight. Colonel Macalister succeeded to be Governor in 1807, and in the same year Sir George Stanley came out as first Recorder of Penang. In the following year the destruction of the fort at Malacca, which had come into our possession in 1805, was completed; and a great fire swept the commercial division of Penang, and destroyed over half a million dollars' worth of property. Part of the force destined for the capture of Java arrived at Penang in 1810, under Lord Minto, and the value of the island in a military point of view, was for the first time recognized. The expedition for the capture of the Moluccas took place shortly afterwards. In these years, too, there was a change of governors, Mr. Bruce assuming control. Indeed, it is remarkable the frequency with which the supreme authority was passed about from hand to hand. Mr. Bruce was succeeded by Mr. Seaton in 1811, Mr. Seaton by Mr. Petrie in 1812, who continued in power till his death in 1816,

when Mr. Phillips, who had at many intervals been acting Governor, exercised supreme authority for a year, until the appointment of Colonel Bannerman as Governor in 1817. Colonel Bannerman continued to administer the Government till 1820, when he died, and was succeeded by Mr. Phillips, who shortly after assuming power was confirmed in the appointment of Governor, retaining it until he was succeeded by Mr. Fullerton, in 1824, and of whose administration of the incorporated Settlement of Penang, Singapore, and Malacca, I have spoken in the first chapter of this book.

During those years over which I have passed so hurriedly many of the little jealousies which characterized the earlier administration were still at work; but the Executive had become so strong as to form a circle of its own, and maintain complete independence of the mercantile body. In the Recorder, Sir George Stanley however, a new source of trouble to the administration arose; as this functionary claimed, and with some justice too, the right of independent action. Sir George appears to have been of eccentric character, and thought proper at times, especially when opposed by the Executive, to push his authority to somewhat obnoxious extremes. On one occasion he had a Captain Cookson of the Royal Artillery arrested and cast into prison, because he had taken out probate of a will of a deceased relative which was said to contain some libellous reflection upon his administration of justice. In this he had acted without the knowledge, much less the co-operation, of the

other officials; and having vindicated what he considered to be the respect of his position, he determined to act equally alone in the display of his leniency, and proceeding early one morning to the gaol, he released the prisoner himself. It was somewhat singular, that during the ensuing night the roof of the gaol fell in, killing several persons, and in such a manner that it would have been impossible for Captain Cookson to have escaped, had he still been in confinement. Not very long after this, much in opposition to the remonstrances of the local Government, he seized and placed in gaol a Malay chief named Syed Hussein, on the charge of having excited a rebellion in Acheen, and driven out its king. Probably in this instance convinced of his error, he proceeded late one night to the gaol, by himself as on the previous occasion, and peremptorily ordered the gaoler to release his prisoner, the Syed.

But in addition to the little dissensions that occurred on the island itself, a gradual dissatisfaction with the condition of affairs was growing up in India. The heavy establishment which was introduced in 1805, had gone on increasing, and this without effecting any proportionate improvement, either in the revenue or commerce of the island. In 1818, the disbursements were 90,900*l.*, the receipts only 43,200*l.*, and ten years afterwards affairs had got still more unsatisfactory, the expenditure for 1827-28, being 137,000*l.*, while the receipts were only 63,000*l.* It was this continual deficit which seemed to grow and not disappear with the growth of the settlement that led to

the arrival of Lord W. Bentinck's mission in 1827, to remodel the Government, and as this brings me at present to the point at which I have treated of the history of the three stations together in the first chapter, it will not be necessary to consider that of Penang any further apart, especially as after this period the island came to hold a secondary place. Indeed, I have only given so much of its early history, because it may not prove uninteresting to learn the long-suffering and unselfish policy of the East India Company in the management of at least some of its acquisitions.

Penang has high claims to beauty of scenery. The island, with the exception of a narrow belt of plain on the eastern shore, is a mass of hills rising steeply from the water's edge in little cones, and gradually increasing in height towards the centre, where three distinct mountains compete for the extreme altitude. The bases of all these hills, and the valleys running between them are clothed in jungle brushwood, with here and there a patch of the tall forest trees that once covered the entire island. The slopes are in most cases cleared, and smile out in healthy cultivation of pepper vines and fruit-trees, and on the summit of many stand the neat bungalows of the residents, belted often by a fringe of cocoanut and areca palm, or Penang trees; the latter being the tree from which, as already stated, the island takes its name, though it does not seem that it was indigenous, or that it even was produced in great quantities. Malacca is named in the same way after a tree that

cannot now be found, or at least is no longer distinguished by that name. Penang has probably more title in later days to the name it bears, than it had in the time of the Malays; for it now exports more *penang* or *betel-nut*, as it is termed in commerce, than any other eastern port, receiving as it does not only the collection of Province Wellesley, but of the whole western coast of the Peninsula.

The point where the European residences or warehouses are collected together is called George Town; but except in official papers it is seldom distinguished by that name, claiming like Singapore the name of the island itself. It is built upon a level sandy point running out on the south-eastern extremity of the island, and separated by a narrow channel of less than three miles from the mainland. The approach to the town from the southward is, as may be inferred from the nature of the island, very beautiful. Between the south-eastern point of the island, which rises in a bold wooded promontory, and the opposite shore of Province Wellesley, the distance is about eight or nine miles; this is some twelve miles south of the town, and the intermediate water has more the appearance of a deep bay than of an open channel. The northern part of the island and the mainland close in together, and shut out the view of the northern outlet.

At the entrance of this bay some pretty green islets are passed, wooded in some parts to the water, and at others encircled by a sparkling beach of white sand. The main island itself towers majestically up on the one hand, and on the other the low mangrove shores

of Province Wellesley stretch along, backed in the distance by the blue mountains of the Peninsula. So land-locked is this passage, that as soon as the southern point of the island is passed, the sea assumes a placid lake-like appearance; and indeed it is seldom at any season disturbed by more than a ripple. About four miles up to right of the usual passage rises the lofty island of Pulo Jeraga thickly covered with wood, and the tall *Poona* trees which were long ago, in 1787, recommended to the directors, and it is believed actually collected for the purpose of furnishing masts and spars for the Company's ships. Between the island and Penang there is a deep though narrow channel, but which is seldom made use of by large vessels. The considerable native village of Jamestown, surrounded by cocoanut and other palm-trees, can just be seen peering out from behind Pulo Jeraga. Further up on the Province Wellesley side the mouths of the Juru and Prye Rivers are passed; on the northern bank formed by the confluence of the latter stands Prye town, the chief village of Province Wellesley.

The shipping of Penang rides at anchor right opposite the town, the chief feature of which is the stone fort which surrounds a small promontory running out into the sea. There is no wharf or pier at which large ships can lie, the landing and discharging being effected by means of lighters. The town is said by the residents to lie in the "valley" of the island as distinguished from the high land further back. This "valley" is in the shape of a triangle, the points of which are the fort on the east, Mount Erskine on

the north, and Sungie Glugor on the south, and comprising about ten square miles. The town, with its suburbs, covers perhaps a square mile of ground, and besides the sea frontage has one principal street, with others branching off from it. The houses present the same Oriental appearance as I have remarked of Singapore, but they are perhaps less compact and more diversified, small attap-covered native huts being frequently close up against handsome European buildings; besides, the residences are removed only a very short distance from the business part of the town. The bustle in the streets is also considerably less, though the character and appearance of the people that wander through them are very much the same, except perhaps that there the natives of India are more numerous.

The roads that intersect the "valley" from the limit of the town to the base of the high lands are numerous and well made, and lead through some very beautiful country. They are for the most part planted on either side by rows of angsana or other umbrageous trees, which afford a grateful protection from the fierce heat and glare of the noonday sun. One of the finest of these roads is that leading to Government Hill, and which passes close by the largest of the two beautiful waterfalls for which the island has a local celebrity. For some distance from town, neat little Malay cottages with enclosure of fruit-trees, cocoa-nut and sugar canes, are passed; and further on, though lying back from the road, are the large nutmeg plantations of the Ayer Itam and Ayer Rajah districts, which though severely

shaken by the same blight as has ruined the species of cultivation in Singapore, are still kept partly attended to.

The soil of the "valley," which is light and sandy near the town, gradually improves as the hills are approached, and is capable of producing with ordinary culture almost any species of intertropical fruit or grain. The hills themselves, however, are for many reasons esteemed the most valuable for cultivation; the soil is deeper and richer, being made up of the disintegration of granite in which felspar and mica have predominated. From their height they secure a constant supply of moisture in the shape of rain and mist, and have also a cooler and more agreeable temperature than the valley below. These advantages were early seized upon by the first settlers, and the summits and slopes of all the smaller hills were soon cleared of the tall jungle with which they were originally clothed and laid out in gardens of nutmeg, clove and cinnamon trees, interspersed with patches of pepper and sirii vines, sugar canes, tobacco, coffee, and indigo. Fruit-trees have now on many hills taken the place of the clove and nutmeg, and other products have greatly fallen into neglect, as Province Wellesley opposite has been found better suited both in point of climate and soil; and the greater facilities of obtaining land there have also served to draw away from Penang the attention of the planters of all descriptions of eastern produce.

About three miles out on the road to Government Hill, a small bridle-path diverges towards the valley

through which runs a stream. This stream, higher up, falls in a series of cascades over the granite rocks and dead and dying vegetation of a deep gorge between the high backland hills of the Ayer Rajah districts. The waterfall itself is in comparison with the cascades of colder and sterner lands little worth remarking upon; but the denseness and luxuriance of the vegetation by which it is surrounded, the beauty of the flowers and mosses and the strange character of the creepers, lichens and parasitical plants that abound in its neighbourhood, must be sought for in vain in any colder clime. And added to these beauties, this waterfall secures around it a coolness which in the "valley" below is unknown, and its neighbourhood is sought as much by those in search of health and relaxation as by the lovers of the beautiful. Within the last year an hotel has been built on the road to Government hill a few yards before the path leads off to the falls. Its bath-houses have been so planned as to collect the waters of the falls before they have become heated by a long exposure to the sun; and combining with the advantages of those cool and refreshing waters all the requisites of a quiet retreat surrounded with great beauty of scenery, it will I think be largely made use of.

Passing the gorge of this mountain torrent the ascent to Government Hill becomes steep and winding, and the hack or palanquin must be here exchanged for the saddle, a sturdy breed of Sumatra pony being generally "well up" to the weight of travellers of ordinary bulk. Sometimes the "valley" and the town are completely shut out of view by the inter-

vening hills, and a glimpse of the western ocean is obtained at others, the road leads through a ravine with verdure-clad hills on either side, and now and then the long plain of the "valley" seems to lie right under foot with the town, and the merchantmen in the roadstead hushed in a sleepy stillness little indicative of the activity that actually prevails there.

But whatever foretastes may on the way up be received by the traveller of the beauty that awaits him, they can scarcely prepare him for the magnificent sight which unfolds to his view when he reaches the summit. I believe there is no time better suited to a fine appreciation of the beauty of this scenery than the early morning just as the sun begins to rise. The beauties do not then burst at once upon the eye so suddenly that it cannot comprehend them, but disclose themselves one by one as the sun grows stronger and disperses the heavy sheet of cloud or mist that lies like a shroud over all beneath. At first the distant hills of the mainland stand out in rugged outline before the rising sun, then the level plains and shores of Province Wellesley fringed with a belt of dark foliage, casting its dull shadow into the calm glassy water of the channel in front of it. Through the province can be traced almost every bend and turn of the rivers Prye, Juru, Junjong, and even of Mudu, which intersect it. The first-named river especially, which lies almost opposite to the town of Penang, and seventy years ago gave shelter to the pirate prahus which devastated the native commerce of these parts, forms a feature worthy of remark in the scene here presented to the

eye. At its mouth can be traced the outlines of the native village to which the river lends its name, and where in former times stood a gun battery of the honourable Company. Its broad course upwards as it reflects the morning's sun presents the aspect of a stream of molten silver meandering tortuously through the dark green moss of some shady dell.

As the clouds and the mists continue to clear away the channel between stands out like a mirror to repeat the beauties that surround it. Then the shores of the island itself, with the town and shipping in front of it, become distinct—Pulo Jeraga and Pulo Kra away down to southward like watchers of the channel. Between the shore and the point of view is the long sweep of plain or "valley" already alluded to, and the little minor hills which intervene having their slopes and their summits green with cultivation and the passes between them clothed in jungle. The prospect on the other side is confined to the hilly ranges to westward, which though inferior in height to Government Hill, shut out from it the view of the Indian Sea behind them. The peaks of many of these ranges are crowned by neatly built bungalows, and have their slopes covered with various fruit-trees.

These hills and the retreats which they afford, are the chief charm of Penang, and have made for it a reputation quite independent of its commercial importance, and give it rank as one of the sanitaria of India. The lowland or "valley" of Penang does not compare advantageously in point of climate with either of the other stations in the Straits. Its tem-

perature is nearly two degrees higher than that of Singapore, and more than one degree higher than that of Province Wellesley opposite, or of Malacca; besides this there is a disagreeable heaviness or sultriness about the atmosphere. But these disadvantages are more than counterbalanced by the easy access to the high lands of the hills, where a climate is obtained differing but little from a mild summer in Europe. While the mean temperature of the "valley" ranges throughout the year at about 81°, that of the Government or Flagstaff hill, which is the highest, averages about 72°; the rain, too, is much more considerable on the hills, for whereas the yearly fall on the plain rarely exceeds 65 inches, that on the hill generally measures over 100 inches. To the summit of the highest of these hills is just six miles, so that it is no wonder Penang is so frequently sought by the invalids of other parts of India, and that the residents there are well content to broil away in the heated plains below with the knowledge that an hour's ride will at any time secure them a relief which neither Singapore nor Malacca can offer.

CHAPTER XII.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY—TOPOGRAPHY—AGRICULTURE.

Fertility of the Soil—Climate—Sea Frontage—Rivers—Early Piratical Nests—Roads—Culture—Rice—Malay and Siamese Farmers—Intermixture of the Races—Malayan Tradition of the Origin of Paddy—Siamese Account—Harvest Ceremonies and Amusements—Sugar Culture—Advantages of the Province—Early Chinese Cultivation—Their Method of Milling—European Planters—Varieties of Sugar-canes—Manner of Planting—Principal European Estates—Future Prospect of Sugar Culture—Other Products—Wild Animals—Tigers—Elephants—Rhinoceros—Bison, &c.

Province Wellesley is interesting almost entirely in an agricultural point of view. Purchased in the year 1800 for the small sum of 2,000 dollars, with the view to deprive of their principal rendezvous the piratical marauders who in these early times committed extensive damage to the native trade that began to pour into the new entrepôt of the Company at Penang, the province has now come to be the only satisfactorily productive possession held by the British in these parts. The causes that have led to this agricultural development are manifold, though a long time elapsed after the settlement of the province before they were properly appreciated or acted upon. In the first place the soil at least of the low-lying level lands available for cereal products was richer, more plentiful, and

consequently cheaper than in the limited "valley" of Penang. The climate too was better suited to most kinds of cultivation; the temperature was lower and more equable; rain fell in quantities nearly as great as on the hills of Penang, and at night-time in the hottest weather and during the longest drought a heavy and refreshing dew could always be depended upon. And last though not least the province when it came into our hands possessed a tolerably large indigenous population, which has ever since continued to be augmented by an easy immigration from the bordering states of the peninsula, whose peoples are not unwilling to exchange the arbitrary and uncertain rule of their native princes for the security and justice to be obtained on British territory; and as a consequence of this, abundance of labour could be obtained by the European planters at a very moderate rate, besides furnishing an abundance of native ryots for the cultivation of rice and other products which leave no room for the skill or capital of Europeans.

Though the province has only a little more than twenty-five miles' frontage to the sea, it is irrigated by four rivers of considerable volume. The Muda river forms the northern boundary of our territory; it is well defined and has high banks, but is not navigable for boats of any draught of water. Between the Muda and the river Prye, which disembogues nearly opposite to the town of Penang, there are several creeks or streams which permit small boats to reach the native villages that line their banks. The Prye itself is over 200 yards wide at its mouth, and though

obstructed by a bar over which vessels of 300 or 400 tons can only pass at high-water, yet above this bar it is navigable to vessels of even considerably greater tonnage for nearly ten miles, at which point it suddenly changes from over fifty yards in breadth to a narrow creek encumbered by fallen trees and brushwood. It was up this river that the Lanun pirates in the days of the early settlement of Penang, used to repair for shelter and equipment.

It is related that in 1791 these pirates, irritated by the opposition they encountered from the British war ships in the neighbourhood of Penang, determined utterly to destroy that Settlement and put the residents to the sword. For this purpose a fleet of over twenty well-armed fighting prahus entered the mouth of the Prye river, where they were joined by ninety war-boats furnished surreptitiously by the Rajah of Quedah. This combined force having placed their fleets in safety, rapidly set to work to fortify a position on the beach opposite Penang by the construction of stockades. These, the remains of which are still visible, were soon completed, and being powerfully garrisoned, the fleet of over one hundred boats of all descriptions sallied forth from the shelter of the Prye river to execute the destruction of Penang. Intimation of the intended attack had however somehow been conveyed to the British Government, and four small vessels and several gunboats were got ready for the attack. As soon as the piratical fleet hove in sight, a rapid descent was made upon it by the British ships, and though the disparity of strength was enormous,

the act was so sudden, vigorous, and altogether so unexpected that the pirates gave way in disorder. Simultaneous with the attack by sea three companies of sepoys, a body of native artillery, and some twenty-five Europeans were landed on the beach of the province, and attacked and after some hard fighting at great odds took the stockades from their pirate defenders.

About four miles south of the Prye is the mouth of the Juru river, which is about 100 yards wide; but this breadth grows rapidly less until at a mile from the sea it becomes a very small narrow creek quite unnavigable. Four miles further south behind the two steep islets of Pulo Kra, and skirting the northern slope of the small promontory of Batu Kawan, is the stream of the Junjong river, which is navigable to small boats about a mile up to the base of Bukit Tambun. The Krean river, which forms the southern boundary of the province, has a volume of water more than equal to that of any of the other rivers I have described, and is navigable for a considerable distance beyond the British boundary, affording a valuable outlet to the products of the native states of the interior. Following the windings of this river for about ten miles from its confluence with the sea, though only six miles distant in a direct line, is the boundary pillar that was long ago erected to mark the south-east limit of the province. Close to this pillar a police-station has been placed to protect the freedom of the river and afford security to the settlers on the confines.

In addition to the natural facilities of communication which these rivers afford, the territory since it came into British hands has been largely intersected with roads, the chief of which runs longitudinally from the civil station at Prye to the north and south boundaries; these are substantially constructed and may be considered the main roads, and from them branch off numerous others running down towards the beach on the one hand and out towards the eastern boundary line on the other. No country perhaps ever illustrated better the value of road-making than Province Wellesley; step by step as these roads were constructed the land on either side of them was taken up and rapidly placed under cultivation. This encouraged the Government to go on, and so certainly has the same good result followed that the whole territory which forty years ago was in its greater extent an unbroken jungle may now be said to flourish and blossom under a healthy cultivation.

The two staple cultivations of Province Wellesley are rice and sugar. The first of these is left almost entirely to the Malays of the province, and in these people I must recognize an exception to the general characteristics I have laid down concerning the Malayan race. The Malays of Province Wellesley appear to me scarcely so pure a people as those to be found on the more southern and eastern shores of the peninsula. They seem to evidence, if not in physical development, at least in character and disposition, some measure of alliance with their Siamese rulers. In my chapter upon the native races to be found in

the Straits I have laid it down as a rule that the Malay is indolent and averse to all exertion that is not prompted either by the necessities of the moment or by the prospect of a very immediate gain. In Province Wellesley this definition must be applied with some considerable qualifications. The Malays here perhaps do not show more honest industry, but they at least apply their efforts with an approach to method if not system, and to this they add a singular attachment to the soil. This latter quality, however desirable a feature in a population generally, has nevertheless been found in respect to this settlement, to offer a serious impediment to the development of the more valuable resources of the territory. In or about the year 1826 many tracts of the low-lying, swampy, but richest land—small considered distinctively, but extensive in the aggregate—passed into the hands of the Malay farmers upon very easy terms, and the holders of these now decline at any price to part with them, though by the cultivation of rice they realize one-fourth only of what might be derived under European direction by the cultivation of sugar and other more valuable products.

Province Wellesley appears for long to have been the seat of the Government of Quedah, while yet the people of that State acknowledged the divine supremacy of Buddha. This is borne out not only by the written records of the Malays, but by the remains of many religious monuments still to be found in different parts of the territory. In due time the preachers of Islamism found their way here as they previously had

to the southward of the Peninsula, and conversion followed on a considerable scale. But it does not seem that this conversion was by any means so perfect or satisfactory as it had proved among the simpler people of the south. While the people here consented to accept most that appeared to them just and honourable in the doctrines of the Prophet, they undoubtedly preserved the better parts of their old faith. Hence it is, I think, that in the Malays of Province Wellesley we find a slightly different people from those I have before described under the general denomination of Malay.

The effect of this amalgamation of their old, with their new belief, is a liberal disregard of the stricter and more inconvenient rules of the latter. They admit, for instance, the fact of the Prophet's curse on the pig, but those who are fond of pork—not a few—justify their indulgence in it, by citing the well-known predilection of their ancient god Buddha for that species of food; and they also assert that the new Prophet Mahomet was at first equally fond of pig, and moreover an epicure in the manner of dressing it and serving it up. Once on a time, they say, "Mahomed gave a feast to the men in authority, and the pork, which formed one of the chief dishes, was very soon discussed. Not feeling satisfied, he addressed his daughter Fatima, and inquired if any remained uncooked; she, supposing that all had been dressed, replied in the negative. After dinner, Mahomed went to the kitchen and there found a large joint of the meat lying uncooked; feeling angry at the disappoint-

ment he and his guests had met with, he pronounced the flesh of the hog to be *haram* (forbidden) thenceforth."

The method of planting and reaping rice here does not materially differ from that which I have described further on in my notice of the Malacca district, but both operations are attended with some rites peculiar to the people, which, however irreconcilable to the faith of Mahomet, they never omit. They have indeed almost a religious regard for the paddy plant; and the Malay of Province Wellesley when he has cultivated a field for one or two seasons, would as soon think of parting with his family as of voluntarily disposing of it to another. They give a singular account of the origin of the paddy, which if it cannot explain, will at least excuse many of the ceremonies they observe at the various stages of its cultivation. "Adam and Hawah, our first parents," they say, "had two sons and two daughters; the daughters to whom they give the precedence, were Normani and Aski; the sons were Soorbani and Aknini. The earth it seems did not then yield enough food for the subsistence of mankind; Adam therefore conveyed by Divine command one son and one daughter into the plains, and having sacrificed them and chopped them into small fragments, he scattered these over the ground. On his returning home, Hawah inquired what had become of her children. Adam replied that they were abroad in the field. Six months afterwards she again asked where they were. Adam said, 'Come, and I will show you them.'

They then both went forth to the plain and called on their missing children by name, bidding them return. The two other children, who had followed them out, answered, 'We are coming.' Adam and Hawah now beheld with wonder the wide plain, waving with a golden harvest. On a sudden the whole grain became *samangat* or instinct with life, and then rising in the air like dense swarms of bees, poured onwards with a loud buzzing noise, until it entered the habitation of the first man and woman from whom it had its birth. Hence it is incumbent on cultivators to treat paddy with respect."

The Siamese farmers, and such of the Malays as retain the Buddhistic faith pure, have a different legend respecting the origin of paddy. They affirm that its growth has always been presided over by a goddess—equivalent to the ancient Ceres, and "that of old when mankind were yet in a state of innocence, grain grew spontaneously on the earth. At length the women began to steal, and men compassionating their weakness pardoned their error four successive times. It then became necessary to have a king to control the evil now just appearing in the world. The men however soon followed in the steps of the women, and they even ventured to show every degree of disrespect to the goddess of grain, by the rough manner in which they cultivated the corn. At length disgusted with the insults heaped upon her, and at the crimes of the human race, she fled and took refuge in a deep cave on a high mountain. Famine now ravaged the earth. To avert this calamity holy men were sent in

search of the lost goddess. Tracing upwards the course of a river, they perceived some husks of grain floating on its surface, and were thus directed to the cave. Here they observed the seeds of grain attached to the roof, and after much supplication induced the goddess to return and diffuse plenty around to a race now first aware of her value." *

All classes of the native cultivators, however varied may be the reasons they assign for doing so, agree in the observance of some sort of ceremony at certain stages of the cultivation of the paddy, usually both at seed time and at harvest. These ceremonies are invariably of a propitiatory kind, and generally include a liberal offering of fruits, sugar, betel-nut, fish and eggs. The Siamese are even more attentive than the Malays to the wants of their goddess, and when the grains of the paddy begin to fill out, they bring forward a plenteous display of acid fruits, because the taste they say for these belongs to the goddess as well as to the sex in general under similar circumstances. At harvest time the Malays set aside the first three days as sacred, and devote themselves to a further propitiation of the presiding spirit; wax tapers are lighted, incense is burned, and parts of the Koran are recited. On the first of these three days one basketful of paddy is cut, on the second two, and on the third three; these are all housed and consecrated, and then the harvest is begun in earnest.

When the paddy is all gathered in, a season of

* These traditions are related by Colonel Low in his notes on Province Wellesley.

festivity and amusement ensues, and much money is spent in theatricals and other displays. In olden times buffalo-fighting formed the grand harvest-home amusement, but as practised by the Malays it has very little reprehensible about it. A circular bamboo paggar or fence is constructed of considerable dimensions, and into this two stranger bulls are introduced by different openings, and left to commence the encounter as they think proper, or to decline it altogether if so disposed. When a combat does take place it lasts but a short period; the bull that finds himself getting the worst of it usually bolting away out of the circle into the fields through those parts of the paggar left open on purpose. Cock-fighting was also a common means of spending the harvest holidays, and for days together the people of a village would sit round under the shade of the circular sheds erected for the purpose, and bet upon the prowess of the different birds. Since the province has become properly settled however, the open indulgence in these two last amusements has been forced back beyond the boundaries into native territory.

The extensive cultivation of sugar is of much more recent date, and is indebted chiefly to European enterprise. It is little more than twenty-three years ago that tracts of land were taken up by European capitalists both in Province Wellesley and Singapore, and laid out with sugar-canes; and as far as climate was concerned the venture promised to be equally successful at both places. But the fertility of the soil of Province Wellesley was undoubtedly superior, and

the level plain-like formation of the land offered much greater facilities for cultivation than the more hilly districts of Singapore. The chief cause, however, that led to the rapid and continued increase of sugar-planting in Province Wellesley, and the early suspension of it in Singapore, was, that shortly after the cultivation had commenced at both places, it was decided by the Imperial Government to admit the sugar and rum of Province Wellesley into the home market at the reduced colonial duties, while the same products of Singapore were to be charged foreign duties. This was a death-blow to the early efforts at sugar-planting in Singapore; but it was after all a fair measure on the part of the Imperial Government, for Singapore was even then an entrepôt for the collection of sugars from China, Java, and Manila, to ten times the value of what could have been produced upon the island for many years to come, and it would have been very difficult to have distinguished between the transhipment of foreign sugars and the exportation of bonâ fide local produce.

In Province Wellesley a kind of coarse sugar had been brought to market by the Chinese settlers long before the cultivation was undertaken by Europeans; but whatever might be thought of the tact and industry of these people in raising the canes, their manufacturing process was a very primitive one and little calculated to extract the full value of the product. Their mill consisted generally of a pair of vertical rollers, either of stone or of very hard wood, resting on a sort of bason platform raised at the rim and having

an outlet leading to a large barrel sunk in the ground, and which collected the juice of the canes; the rollers were set in motion by bullocks and the canes passed between them by the hand. Close to the mill and under the same shed a large fire-place was built of mud or mortar, with three separate shallow boilers embedded in it. The juice was carried in buckets from the barrel at the mill to a reservoir close by the boilers and within reach of the sugar-maker, who ladled it in as required. No stated temperature was maintained, but the fire merely increased or diminished so as to keep the juice always bubbling. A jar of cocoa-nut oil was kept close at hand, and any sudden ebullition was checked by pouring a little oil into the pan. After the juice was sufficiently boiled in the first pan it was poured into a flat-bottomed wooden reservoir, where it cooled and left behind it many of its impurities. From this reservoir it was conveyed by means of a syphon into the second boiler, when nearly the same process was gone through. Finally it was led into the last boiler, where it was boiled with a little shell-lime and then poured into a cooler. From this cooler, when reduced to the proper temperature, it was slowly drained off into conical, porous clay jars, one layer being allowed to partially crystallize before a second was added. These jars were arranged on a wooden platform, and the molasses which oozed from them collected thereby into a large barrel. In twelve or fifteen days the molasses had generally drained away, and the surface sugar of each jar was then scraped off and placed in the sun to dry. This scrap-

ing was repeated every few days until only the refuse at the bottom was left, which was thrown in with the molasses.

It may be readily understood that the planters of the present day have found little to imitate in this rude process of manufacture; but it is nevertheless probable that the present extensive sugar estates in Province Wellesley owe their existence there in a great measure to it. It was very easy to see that if, under a rude and imperfect milling, which lost it was estimated nearly one-third of the juice of the canes, and required twice the amount of labour needed for the finest West India mills, enough sugar could yet be brought to market to recompense both for the planting and milling, the prospects of remuneration on the introduction of modern machinery were more than favourable. By the early Chinese planters, too, the suitability of the soil was demonstrated; and it is somewhat remarkable that the European sugar-growers have as yet effected but little improvement in the manner of cultivation; and though the examples of both Java, Manila, and the West Indies are before them, they have been content very much to adopt the system previously prevailing among the Chinese.

There are several varieties of sugar-cane at present produced on the estates under cultivation: different species both from the West Indies and from Mauritius have been also tried, but it may be said that only the indigenous plants, or those which were early introduced by the Malays themselves, have come into anything like extensive or remunerative production. The

varieties in common use in the province are thus stated in Colonel Low's dissertation on Penang.

1. The large cane or Tubboo, which is comparatively free from the ashy powder found on several other kinds. The Malays consider it to be less sweet than Tubboo Itam.

2. Tubboo bittong beraboo, the powdery bark cane.

3. Tubboo Merah, a red cane, the juice of which is considered more acidulous than the two foregoing.

4. Tubboo Rotan, the rattan cane, thin and hard.

5. Tubboo kookoo karban. Buffalo hoof cane, a hard cane with a chocolate-coloured rind.

6. Tubboo Itam, a black cane, esteemed by the Malays; will attain to the height of twelve feet.

The juice of all these canes immediately after it is expressed will show a strength of 9° to 11° by Baume's saccharometer.

The first object in sugar-planting is to clear the ground of all obstructions, not only of jungle but of undergrowth and old stumps and tree roots; the surface grass, too, must be cleared away and the naked earth kept clean. The canes are then set out in long parallel rows six feet apart, each plant in the row being about two feet and a half apart. From April till June is the season best suited for the planting of the canes; but this is not strictly adhered to, and ripe canes may be generally seen at all seasons of the year. As the plants grow up trenches of about two feet in depth are dug between the rows; the canes are manured from time to time with decayed fish, bat guano, and other manures which can be obtained in abundance. Upon

the attention paid to trenching and manuring, the period of maturity in a great measure depends, but fifteen months may be taken as the average time which elapses from planting till the canes are ready to be cut. They are then fully seven feet in height, are thick and well filled, and in many respects superior to the canes of the West Indies. Each acre contains about 2,500 plants or bunches, each bunch yielding about eight canes; and the produce of these would be about a ton of good sugar, with a proportionate quantity of molasses.

There are now eleven extensive sugar plantations in Province Wellesley the property of European capitalists and under European superintendence. Of these no fewer than six—the Caledonia, Krean, Victoria, Jawee, Golden Grove, and Valdor estates—are the property of the Right Hon. Edward Horsman, M.P., H.M.'s Privy Councillor. Mr. Horsman, who I believe has never seen these valuable properties of his, embarked some twelve years ago upon the venture of sugar-planting solely upon the representations which were conveyed to him of the productiveness of the soil and the suitability of the climate. Nor as far as I can learn have these representations proved exaggerated. An enormous outlay, larger perhaps than could at first have been contemplated, was necessary at the outset, but the returns have already been large, and are likely to be progressive for a good many years to come, and this with no commensurate increase of annual outlay. The other estates are: Batu Kawan, the property of the Messrs. Brown and Nairne; Tassek, the property

of Mr. Nairne; Malakoff, the property of Mr. Chasseriau; and Juru and Simpang Ampat, the properties of Messrs. Herriot and Co.

To most of these plantations is attached milling machinery of the highest order, in all cases driven by steam power, and an extensive staff of European superintendents and engineers. But to the introduction of fine modern machinery the efforts of the European planter seem to have been confined; for, as I have remarked before, the culture of the cane is left pretty much as it was in the hands of the Chinese and native pioneers. This is probably the result of the character of the labour that must be depended upon, for it would perhaps be a fruitless task and at all events would be an expensive experiment for a handful of Europeans to endeavour to break a whole people off their old method of cultivation in favour of a new one. Besides this, large patches of land remain in the native hands, and no modern intervention could affect the manner of cultivation on these, and they furnish, I have been told, a very considerable proportion of the canes that are crushed at the various mills.

There can be no doubt whatever that in sugar production a large and sure source of wealth will continue to be derived to Province Wellesley; but it is to be regretted at the same time that as long as the boundaries of the British territory remain as they are, this source must be confined within sure but ascertained limits. It appears that beyond the estates already secured every acre of land suitable for the cultivation

of this great staple has already passed out of the hands of Government. A small portion of what is held by the planters still remains uncultivated, but the largest and best tracts are taken up by the Malays and Chinese for paddy-fields and fruit-gardens, and cannot be bought from them. So that I rely for the increase of the sugar returns rather on an improvement of the estates already in existence than to the establishment of new ones. There is only one way of overcoming this obstacle to the full development of this valuable product in these parts; that is, by the extension of the territorial boundaries of Province Wellesley, and to this I am of opinion the British Government should early direct its serious attention.

On many of the sugar plantations and also on the slopes of some of the hills in Penang, the cultivation of coffee has been attempted, but though meeting with no discouragement its growth has never been more than experimental; the trees that have been planted bear a beautiful small blue bean quite equal in flavour to that of the best Ceylon. Indigo is grown almost entirely by the Chinese in the province, and only for local consumption. The plant is in most countries considered as an annual and renewed every year, but in the richer soil here it continues productive for two years. This drug however will never be able to be produced in the province cheap enough for exportation. Tobacco is grown by the Malays, but it is badly prepared and never exported. Tapioca has in late years been cultivated somewhat extensively; it will flourish upon land unfit for sugar, and several

Europeans have directed their attention to it. In addition to these there are a number of other products of limited growth, and Province Wellesley produces in abundance all the fruits of Singapore and Malacca.

While Penang is almost untenanted by wild animals Province Wellesley boasts a very fair list. Tigers are here in considerable numbers and are very often seen prowling about the outskirts of the native villages; but whether it is that they are less ferocious than their sturdy brethren which swim across from the mainland of the Peninsula to Singapore, or that the people of Province Wellesley are more scattered, and their pursuits and the nature of the country less favourable to a surprise, the loss of life by these monsters is comparatively speaking insignificant. Still however a few victims pass off every year, and it was here that the remarkable case related in the fourth chapter of this book occurred, in which a tiger broke into a house on the outskirts of a village and carried off a man.

Elephants were plentiful in Province Wellesley at the time the British first took possession, and are still to be met with in the bordering forests. They are not nor does it appear that they were more largely used by the Malays in field labour or as beasts of burden, though it is said that the tin from the Patani and Perak mines is chiefly conveyed by these animals to the various depôts. They at one time formed an item of export to British India, the traffic having been carried on by the Coromandel native traders. The vessels used in the transport

were constructed so that the planking of one side would open out or let down; these vessels were run some miles up the Prye river and moored in deep water close to the bank, the side was opened out and a broad planking sloped from the bank into the hold. The elephants were enticed on to this planking, the extremity of which reaching on board was then suddenly lowered a little and the animals slid down into the hold. It is many years since this export stopped, and the demand in Siam is so great as to absorb all that are now reclaimed from the forests.

The rhinoceros is still plentiful in the bordering forests, and they not unfrequently make incursions into the province itself. They are hunted by the Malays for the sake of their horns and hides. The wild ox or bison is also in great abundance; its flesh is sweet and wholesome, and the Malay hunters cure the meat and bring it into market to be sold to the Chinese junks and native prahus; these hides are also valuable, but the great object is to capture them alive and break them in to be beasts of burden. Wild hogs and deer abound; the former is a very powerful animal. A few months ago a planter in the province shot at one and slightly wounded it, on which the beast rushed upon him, knocked him down, and a deadly scuffle ensued, from which the planter very narrowly escaped with his life. Besides these that I have enumerated, there is an abundance of smaller animals, such as monkeys, squirrels, &c., also birds, alligators, and snakes; and any one really bent upon sport, with some good guns in his kit, and

determined to undergo all the hardships and discomforts of a ten days' campaign among the creeks and forests on the borders of the province, would be amply rewarded both in the number and variety of the game he could secure.

CHAPTER XIII.

MALACCA: ITS ANTIQUITY—TRACES OF ITS EARLIER DAYS.

How and when it came into European Possession—Its former Greatness—Traces of its earlier Days—The Stadt House—St. Paul's Cathedral—Old Tombs and their Epitaphs—The Ancient Fort—Its Destruction by the English—Underground Passages and their Traditions—Curious Discoveries—Evidences of extensive Gold Mining—Painful Incident—The Modern Church—Practical Spirit of the East India Company.

MALACCA was founded about the year 1260 by the Malays who were driven from the Island of Singapore, as related in the first chapter. By the inherent energy of these people and by good government, the colony rose in little more than a century and a half to be a place of great importance, its rulers claiming equality with the kings of Siam and Java, and maintaining friendly relations even with the emperors of China. The states of Patani, Quedah, Perak, Pahang, Kalantan and Tringanu, were all under its dominion, besides several provinces in Sumatra opposite. It continued in a condition of almost uninterrupted prosperity, until attracting the cupidity of the Portuguese, it was, after an unsuccessful assault in 1508, captured by Albuquerque in 1511. During the Portuguese occupation

it appears fully to have maintained its importance; but when it came into the hands of the Dutch in 1642, its onward progress was seriously arrested, for the latter power inaugurated a cruel policy, which drove away the Malays in large numbers to the neighbouring states. In 1795 Malacca was wrested from the Dutch by the English, and remained in our hands till 1818, when it was given back to come finally into our possession seven years afterwards, in 1825, by virtue of the treaty with Holland.

But it had ceased long before British rule to be a point of attraction to the busy adventurers who poured eastward in the search of riches.* Time was beyond doubt, for the impress of enterprise long dead still remains, when Malacca was a great commercial emporium, at least according to the ideas of that time. Nor are there wanting indications to show that its local resources were developed to a degree that has been long forgotten; so much, indeed, is this the case, that the richness of the land we hold is now judged of rather by the knowledge of what it has produced than by our own research and examination. Malacca is a ruin—ruin moral and material; not a moral ruin because its people have become bad, but because they have fallen into that negative state of existence which is most fatal to progress. The people, like the place, gather to themselves glory only from the past, not from what they are and what they do now, but from what they were and what their ancestors

* Here I partly transcribe from notes made by me during a visit to Malacca in 1863.

did before; and with this reflected splendour they are content to a degree that forbids the hope of reawakened energy. The material ruin of Malacca is less painful to behold; in truth it is its most pleasing feature; for though we can look upon the broken arches and crumbled walls of the dead works of dead men with an almost tenderer admiration than we should have bestowed upon them in their full strength and perfection, it is not so with the broken or wasted spirit of a people. At the present day, therefore, it is but seldom that Malacca is approached by Europeans in search of commercial advantages. Those who may land there on their passage through the Straits, examine it as a relic, and those who proceed from the sister settlements do so generally for pleasure or from curiosity only.

The appearance of the town from the roadstead is to say the least pretty. The anchorage for vessels of any great draught of water is about two miles out from the landing; and from this, the eye embraces a view of nearly twelve miles along the coast, extending from Tanjong Kling on the westward to Water Islands on the eastward. In front there rises prominently the old ruined church or cathedral on St. Paul's hill, where the flagstaff is erected, and where the light-tower is built up against the wall of the old church: at the foot of the hill stands the ancient Stadt House, which is nearly hid among the foliage of the stately Weringan trees which cluster round the bend of the hill and are of a size unknown in Singapore. Close to the Stadt House runs the Malacca river, and this

divides the native part of the town on the westward from the European to the eastward. The former is not attractive, though from a distance, the tiled and closely packed roofs, which gradually lose themselves among the cocoanut and other foliage, have no bad effect. The European part of the town is, on the other hand, very picturesque; for the houses, which line the sea wall, are tastefully built and in most cases surrounded by trees and flowers; and these also become gradually shut in by the foliage on the islands to the eastward. The background is composed of a series of wooded knolls and hills gradually increasing in elevation and size as they go inland, until abruptly terminated by the rugged outline of Mount Ophir. Altogether, the view of Malacca that is presented to the visitor newly arrived in the roads, is one which invites to a closer inspection.

The Stadt House is probably the place to which the stranger will first direct his steps; and this not entirely with a view to commence his researches after the curious; for though the building is properly speaking the Government house, it is too large for any single family, and, except when in the occupation of the Governor or the Recorder on their periodical visits, the use of one or two rooms can be obtained by application to the Resident Councillor. And indeed the fine old edifice is no bad place where to sit down and collect and arrange some fragments of the past history and present condition of the country whose rulers had for a century and a half dwelt within the same walls. The palace, for it is still as worthy of that name as any edifice yet reared in these parts

by British skill and labour, is itself not the least interesting object to be examined. The style of its architecture belongs to an age that has now gone by, and the method of its construction bears no resemblance to the modern buildings around it. It is simply Dutch; but yet it is the best style of the Dutch architecture of a hundred and fifty years ago. It has those numberless gables and castellated walls and balconies, together with that prim yet irregular aspect which is nowhere to be seen out of Holland. Nor is it merely the flimsy imitation of the old Dutch palaces. Unlike our own modern buildings in the East, which are too often but the pasteboard representations of their original types, all is solid and substantial. Indeed with respect to every one of the old buildings at Malacca there is nothing that will strike the thoughtful observer more powerfully than the substantial character of their construction. It would almost seem, and this conjecture will be borne out by subsequent observation, that the emigrants of these old days were colonists, and not birds of passage merely. They must not have come, as the people of England now flock to the east, to gather together so much of the wealth of the land as they could grasp and then to hurry back and spend it at home heedless of the after fate of the country from which it had been derived. Both the Portuguese and the Dutch appear to have determined to deal more fairly by their Indian possessions, and to content themselves with a luxurious life in the east as the reward of their enterprise and industry. The flights of stairs, the pavements of all the courtyards

and halls, and also the facings of the building, are of solid blocks of stone, which it is said must have been brought from a great distance, and which is of such a flinty nature as to have required no little masonry labour to have reduced it to shape. The building, which after the capture of Malacca by the English had become slightly dilapidated, was subsequently repaired, and many of its oldest features swept away; but still more than enough remains to tell its date and origin. It would seem too, that an effort has been made in later times, probably by some romance-loving Resident Councillor, to make the inward furnishings of the building have some consistency with its quaint exterior; for the stranger who retires to rest within its dreary chambers, reposes on an antiquated canopied bed of gigantic proportions and sombre aspect, standing four feet and a half high at least off the ground, with the old-fashioned steps on either side; and by a natural process, the mind is carried away in dreams of stately Stadtholders and portly Burgomasters. But, unlike many ancient buildings in Europe, the Stadt-house appears never to have owned any ghostly tenant; and whatever may be the vagaries of the traveller's mind during sleep, he need not fear in his waking moments to encounter the spectres of any of its bygone inhabitants. The mornings in Malacca are cool, and this even in the hotter part of the year, and give time for a fair amount of inspection before the sun becomes uncomfortably strong. St. Paul's Hill, with its ruined Cathedral, its tower and its flagstaff, is the point to which a visitor is most likely to be first attracted; and if he

be of a contemplative mind, if he have it in his power with the relics of a past age before him to call back some shadow of its life and manners, he will be amply rewarded. The Cathedral must have been one of the first works of the Portuguese after their occupation of the Settlement, and cannot be much less than three hundred and fifty years old. At the first dawn of the Reformation, while Henry the Eighth was still toying with the great religious revolution, the walls of St. Paul's Cathedral at Malacca were slowly rising by the forced labour of a conquered people under the guidance and direction of the enthusiastic and powerful missionaries of Rome. There can be no doubt that forced labour was employed upon this, and upon most other buildings at the time; the extent of the work would prohibit the possibility of its having been executed by European artisans, and a careful examination of the masonry would rather confirm this opinion; for though the design is faultless and the carving of the stones minute and laboured, still there is the want of that perfect symmetry and regularity which is so remarkable in the contemporaneous works of Europe. But, even if the religious enthusiasm of the emigrants, or the wealth of the church, had secured European stone-cutters, the great bulk of the work must still have been performed by the people of the soil,—and the principle of remuneration adopted in those days is well known. According to the opinion of the present local authorities the procuring of materials, and especially of stone, must have been the heaviest part of the work; for this last, a hard honeycombed iron-stone, it is said cannot

be found within many miles of the Cathedral. I scarcely agree, however, in this, or in the Dutch legend that it was built by the Portuguese with the stones of the ancient Malay Kings; for according to my observation, all the large boulders on the beach on the Malacca side of Tanjong Kling bear a very close resemblance to the material which composes the old church.

Whatever may have been the difficulty attending its construction and whatever the skill of its design, they have been unable to rescue it from the inevitable decay of age. But time has dealt gently with it; the roof it is true is gone, and the sun and shower of near a century have wrought their work; yet the walls stand and the plan of the building remains perfect. There are the groined arches of the windows and the doors, the built-up niches which had held saints or martyrs, and the recesses where had stood the holy water and consecrated wine. The Dutch, who in 1642 wrested the settlement from the Portuguese, had done their best to efface all memorials of the Romish worship, for it appears that for some years after their accession this church was used by them for Protestant service. Still, however, they have been more merciful or more enlightened than the reformers of Europe, and when they had built a church for themselves they continued to respect the walls which had been the temporary shelter of their own faith.

It is not to the walls however of this old church that we must look for the story of the past. At our

feet lie the chronicles of the dead; indeed, the pavement is of tomb-stones, of all sizes, of every variety of stone, and of sculpture of different degrees of fineness. The earlier stones—those marking the resting-places of the Portuguese—are mostly granite and of a plain and simple character. Those set up after the Dutch accession have much finer carving—finer by far than is now to be found in most modern cemeteries; the stone, too, is a something between dark limestone and black marble, and unlike any to be found near Malacca, from which it would appear that the wealthy Dutchmen must have procured these tablets from Europe. Most of the Dutch stones bear crests or armorial bearings, in which the ship and lady of Holland are conspicuous; these crests, together with the limited number of graves which the enclosure of the church walls permits, would favour the conclusion that the influential citizens only of Malacca obtained their last resting-place within the favoured ground. The rules of admission, too, appear to have been calculated with singular foresight, for though every nook of the old ground is now appropriated, still the tenants of no particular generation predominate, but commmencing three hundred years back, the dates come gradually down to within the present age; now, however, the ground is closed to all but two or three families.

The most ancient date that remains legible upon any of the tombs is 1568; but the body of the epitaph is too much effaced to enable anything but a conjecture to be formed of its purport. There are several other

stones of the same material and style of inscription as this first, but all worn away to such an extent that neither name nor date is now discernible. The most perfect stone of the time of the Portuguese is that of a Jesuit bishop of the Japan mission, bearing the following inscription :—

HIC JACET DO
MINUS PETRUS
SOCIETATIS
JESU SECUN
DUS EPISCOPUS
JAPONENSIS
OBIIT AD FRE
TUM SINGAPU
RÆ MENSE FEB
RUARIS ANNO
1598.

"Here lies Bishop Peter of the Jesuit Society; second Bishop of Japan. He died in the Straits of Singapore in the month of February, 1598."

A great deal may be learned from this stone. It tells, in the first instance, of the wonderful extent to which the Roman Catholic religion had been pushed in these days by the powerful, ambitious, yet self-denying followers of the order of Jesus. This man, not the first but the second bishop who had laboured to spread the gospel in Japan, no doubt on his return from that far-off land, that Ultima Thule of the then known world, and probably after many years of ministry, died in the Straits of Singapore. We learn here, too, that the island of Singapore, though not reclaimed to civilization for 250 years afterwards, bore then the same name as it bears now, and gave its title to the narrow straits between it and the coast of Johore—

a channel which, though altogether abandoned within the last 70 years, was until then believed the only safe thoroughfare to China.

Fifty years before this Jesuit Bishop had laid his bones in the old church, the renowned St. Francis Xavier had arrived in Malacca and had directed the great fire which terminated in the entire destruction of the Achinese fleet, whose admiral had sent a defiant challenge to George de Melo, the Portuguese commander. Nor had trouble entirely ceased at the date of the bishop's sepulture; for, according to the old chronicles, from the year 1597 to 1600 the Portuguese garrison at Malacca was subjected to a succession of exhausting attacks both from the Malayan princes in the interior, and from the powerful rulers of Achin in Sumatra, then the most important naval power in these quarters. However, though the times were troublous enough when the grave closed over the good old bishop, no rude hand, raised in local faction or lifted by foreign foe, has disturbed the tablet to his memory, which remains in a singular state of preservation.

There are many other ancient graves, but they only serve to carry the enquirer's mind back to the period of their dates, and leave it there to fill in the life and manners of the age according as his knowledge of history may be more or less perfect. There is one however, which I must notice, for it tells some story of domestic life. As far as antiquity is concerned, it loses by comparison with the grave I have just considered. It is of the Dutch age—when the Portuguese had for nearly

half a century ceased to be rulers of Malacca. It reads in this way,—

DOM
PIAEQUE MEMORIAE
AGNITAE TRIP
UXORIS CASTAE
FOECUNDÆ DILECTÆ
HOC MONUMENTUM FT.
ARNOLD VAN ALSEM
FISCI ADVOCATUS
14 KALEN FEBRUARIS
M. D. C. XCVII

"To the pious memory of Agnes Trip, a chaste, fruitful, and beloved wife, this monument was erected by Arnold Von Alsem, Crown Counsel, 14th February, 1697."

Here can be gathered a little of the inner life of the people of that time. We learn that then as now, chastity in woman was her chief virtue and ornament; but when it is specially recorded to the honour of a wife's memory that she was chaste, we have some reason to doubt of the general morality of the times in which she lived. In an age like our own, and among a people—

> "Whose daughters are always virtuous,
> Whose sons are always brave."

—a husband would scarcely seek to gain respect for his wife's memory by recording on her tombstone that through life she had been chaste. Nor does history serve to dispel such misgivings. As far back, it is said, as the time of St. Xavier, that sainted worthy found the morality of the people of Malacca at such a low ebb, that, unable to make head against it, he saw no other course before him but to curse the place and fly from it. But the grave of Von Alsem's wife tells us that in

addition to her being chaste she was fruitful; and though it is a singular virtue to have piously recorded on an epitaph, yet one cannot but admire the honesty and forgive the pride of the husband who thus tells to future ages that his wife had increased and multiplied according to God's commandment given to our common ancestor. Besides, the husband appears to have been keenly alive to the fact, that to be both chaste, and at the same time fruitful, is a greater virtue than to be chaste and not fruitful. From this stone, too, we learn that at the time the lady died, there was a Crown counsel, or State advocate in Malacca, for so I translate *Fisci Advocatus*. A hundred and seventy years later, Singapore, that has grown to ten times the importance of Malacca in its palmiest days, is behind it in this one respect,—in that, to the present day, though much wanted, there is no office of Crown prosecutor.*

Altogether, the graves within the walls of this old church must continue one of the chief attractions of Malacca. The epitaphs on many are quaint and curious;—some, too, may be simple—and others perhaps faulty; but, strange as it may seem, they stand forth in bold superiority to those of modern times which are to be found in the building now used for Protestant worship. I said that the roof of the old church had fallen in; I must, however, except the chancel, which has, in a spirit of irreverent economy, been appropriated by the English Government for a

* Since this was written a Crown prosecutor has been appointed for the Straits.

powder magazine. Though, whether the roof that now shelters the gunpowder of her Majesty is the selfsame as that which sheltered the worship of the faithful in the time of St. Xavier, is of course a matter of conjecture only.

There is about the broken walls of this church something far more striking than is to be observed in the ruins of a similar age at home. Instead of the weird and sombre surroundings which as it were by prescription belong to such ancient memorials in Europe, we see on every side the fresh and lusty growth of tropical vegetation. Where at home we would look for old oaks or stately pine-trees, here we find the feathery cocoa-nut, the werringan, mango and mangoosteen; though the yellow rice-fields in the distance might, with no great effort of imagination, be taken for the corn-fields of Europe. In the very centre of the eastern wall of the ruin, may be seen a tropical plant which, having taken root in the basement of the building, has in the vigour of its upward growth fairly split the old walls rather than deviate to right or left of its course. From every chink and crevice, too, droop a luxuriant profusion of lichens, and some of those lovely orchids which are but rarely to be seen in the choicest conservatories of Europe. Altogether, it is a picture not often to be met with; to see the reverend old pile, gray with age, surrounded by that warmth of Eastern scenery, which is associated in the English mind with everything that is mutable and transient.

Round the base of St. Paul's Hill, to seaward,

stood one of the strongest forts which had probably ever been constructed by Europeans in Eastern parts, either before or for many years after its date. It was designed and begun by Albuquerque in 1515, or about four years after his conquest of Malacca from Mahomed Shah, its Malayan ruler. From its size, and from the durable materials from which it was composed, a considerable number of years must have been devoted to its construction; old traditions among the Malays state, that its building occupied thirty-six years and fourteen days; this period, however, seems too nicely measured to merit much credence. It is also stated that Albuquerque at the same time laid the foundation of the old church already described, and that he dedicated it to the "Visitation of our Lady."

The fort remained in a tolerable state of preservation till the year 1807, when the British, who had some time before taken Malacca from the Dutch, caused it, at an enormous expense, to be razed to the ground. This was done in anticipation of the abandonment of the place, and so to prevent its afterwards being occupied as a stronghold by any other European power. The expense of this destruction, which was close upon 70,000*l.*, will give a very good idea of the extent and durability of the ancient fort. All that now remains is the eastern gateway, which has probably been spared as a sort of relic of the old work; the material of which it is built is the same honeycombed iron-stone as is to be observed in the church on the hill; the stones have all been well cut and fit perfectly into one another, and the gate must originally have been orna-

mental in appearance. But the Dutch, with that strong love of plaster and whitewash which has at all times distinguished them, must shortly after their occupation have commenced to renovate the fort after their own style, for though the walls of the gateway have in many places been bared by time, it is evident that at one period they had been well coated over with plaster; and immediately over the entrance, on the plaster that remains, may still be seen the impress of the Dutch coat of arms, and the date 1670 below—a very glaring record of cool appropriation, whereby the Dutch have sought for themselves the credit of a work which had been completed more than 100 years before their accession; it would seem too, that, at the time, they were not unconscious of a measure of effrontery when they wrote on plaster instead of on stone.

It is difficult to imagine any other purpose for which the fort was built than as a protection from an attack upon the town by an enemy's ships; and yet, unless the physical geography of the harbour has considerably altered, and its depth of water was much greater than it is now, the fort must have been entirely useless except to prevent an attack from a landing party in small boats. At the present day, vessels capable of carrying guns heavy enough to be destructive against a fortification, must, unless they would ground at low water, anchor so far out as, even with the superior weapons of modern days, to be safe themselves, and at the same time harmless against the fort. That some material alteration in the depth of water in Malacca Roads has gradually taken place

within the last 350 years, seems a most probable conjecture. In 1508, when the Portuguese admiral, Lopez de Sequeira, cast anchor for the first time in Malacca roads, it is recorded that he opened a heavy fire on the town from all his vessels, and the effects of which are thus described in the Malay annals. "All the people of Malacca were frightened when they heard the sound of cannon; saying, what sound is this like thunder? And the bullets came and struck the people who were on the land, and some had their necks severed, and some had their waists, and some their hands and their feet. The terror grew constantly worse and worse, and they said what is the name of this weapon, which is so round; it is not sharp, yet will it kill?" And three years afterwards when Albuquerque came to take possession of the place, as soon as he dropped anchor he commenced a heavy cannonade, referring to which the same annals tell us that "multitudes ran searching for a place to shelter themselves from the bullets." It is plainly enough to be inferred from this, that the harbour could in these times permit tolerably heavy vessels to lie within gunshot of the shore, whereas now, at low water, even a ship's boat cannot approach to within half a mile, except by following the very narrow channel which the river has formed for itself through the mud. If the depth of water was no greater in 1807 than it is now, the destruction of the fort by the British authorities, at a cost of 70,000*l.*, must be set down as little else than a piece of thoughtless Vandalism.

The decay of Malacca has been gradual, and very

little besides bare walls has been left to tell of its past importance. The later poverty of the people had doubtless made them reduce to money every relic that had any intrinsic value; still, however, some of its ancient stores and implements which had escaped their notice or cupidity continue from time to time to turn up. Twelve years ago, while opening out a subterraneous passage at the foot of the hill, two cases of ancient cutlasses were found, which, with a lamentable disregard of their historical value, were distributed by the authorities amongst the convict and sepoy workmen, and we believe not one can now be found. The passage in which these weapons were discovered, is reported to have been some sort of communication leading from the town to the monastery behind the church, and which the old monks availed themselves of when engaged in those scarcely clerical enterprises on which it is said they at times adventured. A more unkind legend prevails, that from the same monastery another subterraneous passage led to the nunnery of "the Mother of God," which was erected on St. John's Hill, about three quarters of a mile distant, but which was afterwards pulled down by the Dutch to build a fort to check the incursions of the Malayan princes. The distance, however, is too great to make such an underground passage possible, and the tradition has probably had for its origin the loose morality into which the people themselves had fallen, and which, as we have seen, made chastity so scarce a virtue as to be specially recorded in favour of those who had practised it.

But however questionable may be the truth of the popular traditions concerning these subterraneous passages, there can be no doubt that underground communications did exist in the neighbourhood of the old hill. Nearly opposite the present landing is the orifice of a stone-built passage which runs directly into the hill a few feet above the level of the road. Not many yards from the entrance this passage is now blocked up with stone; and though it was here that the two cases of cutlasses were discovered, no persistent effort has since been made to clear away the intervening masonry, and ascertain the place to which it leads, or the purpose which it served; a couple of convicts could surely be well spared for this work. In the old church the mouth of another underground entrance has also been laid open, but nothing has been done to follow it up. It is said that in this case the authorities have been deterred from going to work by respect to the prejudice of the old Malacca families, who consider the ground is too holy to be disturbed, either to satisfy curiosity or to afford an additional page to the history of the place. So far indeed was this feeling allowed to prevail, that many years ago, when a coffin was discovered in a recess of the walls of the church, displaying all the indications of great age and of the importance of the individual whose remains it contained, being surrounded by a metallic case, it was returned unopened by the Resident Councillor of the day to the place where it was found, and the recess built up.

But the most curious discovery of late years was

made by Captain Playfair about twelve months ago. A part of the road that now runs round the base of the hill had to be straightened and levelled, and in making the necessary excavations the walls of a cellar or store-room which had formed part of the old Portuguese Government buildings were broken down, and in a small recess were discovered forty or fifty earthenware pots, many of which were crumbled to pieces, but in each of those which were whole was found a small quantity of quicksilver. Only about four pounds weight in all was recovered ; but had the pots been full, as they doubtless were when the light had last closed upon them, they must have contained considerably more than a ton weight of this uncommon metal. There is only one purpose for which such a large quantity of quicksilver could be required or made available, and that is for the amalgamating process in gold mining. It is well known that the greater portion of the lands in the interior of Malacca are auriferous. Ten years ago, when the rich discoveries of Australia had revived over the world the gold fever which was fast declining under the reduced returns of California, prospecting parties, European as well as Chinese, spread themselves over the jungled valleys around Mount Ophir, with the hope of striking some rich lead of the precious metal. No such lead could be found ; but it is worthy of remark that in almost every spot which was tried gold in small quantities was procured, and though all the sinkings were ultimately abandoned, still some had been worked for nine months or a year. But it scarcely required this modern rush to

point to the auriferous locality, for the name Mount Ophir is sufficiently indicative of the presence of the precious metal. No doubt an extensive system of gold mining was carried on in the time of the Portuguese, and that whether or not richer fields were then known than can now be discovered, by forced labour and by the introduction of European appliances they were able to make it an important source of revenue; and if the jungle of 300 years could be cleared away, it is possible that there might still be seen the abandoned diggings of the early colonists of Malacca. But at all events I think it well here to point to this discovery of quicksilver as giving rather a startling proof both of the extent of the auriferous resources of the country, and of the skill with which they were developed in olden times.

Before closing these observations in the vicinity of St. Paul's hill, I should notice the Light Tower which is built up against the southern gable of the old church. Its origin is materially different from that of the older building to which it clings. It was erected by the Dutch for the purpose which it now serves, of being a guide to ships passing to and fro, or approaching the harbour. From its elevation and from the superior character of the light with which in late years it has been fitted, it has proved of great use to vessels passing the Straits. A rather singular incident occurred here, which will serve to impress this tower somewhat painfully on my memory; for it happened on the morning of the first arrival at Malacca of the party of which I was one. Two fine boys, six years and three

years old respectively, children of the signal-master and light-keeper, obtained by some means a bottle of brandy, and either from playfulness or from the gratification it afforded, drank so deeply that one of them died within half an hour, and the other, after lingering insensible until next morning, also expired.

The building at present used for divine service stands close to the Stadt-house. It had been built by the Dutch as soon after their accession as they could spare the necessary time and expenditure, and is probably 150 years old. It remains in an almost perfect state of preservation, and promises for many years to come to afford ample accommodation for all the Protestant worshippers of the place. Outside it presents a very plain appearance, nor is it of imposing dimensions. It is gable-ended, having the entrance at one extremity and the altar at the other. No attempt has been made at a tower, but the peak of either gable bears a curious ornament in the shape of a large sphere composed of iron bands, which give a somewhat prison-like aspect to the building. The interior is of more pleasing appearance, its furnishings are plain but neat, and are strangely old-fashioned. Immediately over the entrance is a gallery where stands an organ which now discourses very doleful music in somewhat trembling and uncertain voice; it has the merit however of being in keeping with everything else around it.

Like the old Cathedral of St. Paul's, under the pavement of this church lie the bones of some of the old Dutch residents, among whom must have been

the fathers of the church. These graves are covered with carefully carved tablets which form a paving right up the centre of the building from the entrance to the altar. Since our time in Malacca, if not earlier, all burials within the walls of the church have been discontinued, but so strong is still the desire of the older residents to keep the names of their dead before the eyes of the living, that though the bodies lie in the burial-ground at the back of the hill, the walls of the church are lined all round by monumental tablets. The inscriptions on these as a rule do not, as I have before observed, compare favourably with those in the old cathedral. In one place some sorrowing friends in the fulness of their esteem for a deceased gentleman have recorded on the tablet to his memory that—

> He was a loving husband and father
> and a *sincere friend to all who knew him.*

And the most conspicuous if not the most ornamental slab around the walls is a huge block of white marble four times the size of any of the other tablets, and from its weight must have been set up in its position with great difficulty, which has nevertheless been erected by a disconsolate husband as a *small* mark of his regard for his amiable and affectionate wife.

The epitaph reads in this way :—

> Beneath this stone is interred
> the remains of ————————
> Her disconsolate husband has caused
> this stone to be placed here as a
> *small mark* of his regard for an
> amiable and affectionate wife.

Unfortunately for the veracity of the tablet, the remains in question do not lie under this stone, but are quietly interred in the burial-ground beyond the hill; the stone, too, originally marked the place of sepulture there, but has now been removed by the disconsolate husband to its present scarcely appropriate place on the church walls. In the rear of the church are some old buildings which have an interesting appearance, and are said to have formed a monastery, but which are now used as store-rooms and barracks. Indeed it seems to have been a policy inaugurated by the Dutch and faithfully followed up by ourselves, to adapt to some present practical purpose all the old buildings in the place. The sword that rusts in its scabbard will sooner wear away than that which has to do hard fighting, and possibly the British authorities have had some such conviction when originally making their arrangements within their newly-acquired possession of Malacca. Nor except with reference to the chancel of the ruined cathedral which is still used as a powder magazine, can much fault be found with the results of this practical spirit.

CHAPTER XIV.

MALACCA: INHABITANTS—AGRICULTURE—MINING.

Native Division of the Town—The Inhabitants—A Convict's Story—Internal Resources of the Territory—Fruit Gardens—Paddy Cultivation—Tapioca—Its Growth and Manufacture—"Ayer Panas" Bungalow—The Hot Springs—The Tin Mines at Kassang—The Roman Catholic Mission to the Aborigines—Father Borie—The Jacoons—Tiger Story—Superstition of the Jacoons—Deserted Nutmeg Plantation.

As I stated at the outset, the European and official is divided from the native part of the town by the river Malacca, a turgid water of canal-like appearance, which at high tide enables tonkangs and small cargo-boats to come up and discharge opposite the numerous godowns which line the banks. All the old buildings as yet remarked upon are on the European or official side of the river, which is both the most ancient and picturesque part of the town. But the western or native division, if less interesting, is by far the most characteristic of the present condition of the place. A handsome iron bridge communicates from one side of the town to the other. The western division is built upon flat ground, no part more than ten or fifteen feet above the sea level; and it slopes gradually off towards the beach, the houses running

out on posts or piles considerably beyond high-water mark. It is strange that the houses thus built out into the sea in most cases over mud-banks, which when the tide is out emit a strong repulsive smell, are nevertheless perfectly healthy; indeed it is said even more so than those built on firm dry ground. The same thing may be remarked in most eastern seaports; and in Singapore not only is the beach built out upon in this way, but the numberless mangrove swamps which are filled and emptied by the river seem to be much more thickly built over than the adjoining dry land, and yet no evil effects are believed to result. The selection of these sites however can scarcely be the consequence of pure choice, and most likely arises either from the comparative cheapness of the land or from the greater facility for receiving and delivering goods; as at high water boats can load and discharge at the very doors of these houses.

The division of Malacca of which I am now treating, and which is properly speaking the business part, is densely peopled; the houses are small and closely packed together and appear to teem with human life. The streets are also crowded; but still the entire aspect is essentially not a busy one. People never seem to bustle or bestir themselves, but saunter along in a dreamy, spiritless, and yet apparently contented manner; and a stranger accustomed to the activity of any of the great Eastern marts, is at first strongly impressed with the idea that he is in the midst of some holiday or religious festival.

Of the varied races who compose its population, there is none whose bearing is more suggestive of this feeling of indolent apathy than the descendants of the founders of the settlement—the Portuguese. They are still called the Portuguese, but they have long ago ceased to deserve to be distinguished, at least favourably so, from the native inhabitants. Indeed they have so intermarried with the Malays and other native people that they would now with great difficulty be distinguished from them, if it were not that, with a strange remnant of ancestral pride, they rigidly adhere to the European style of dress; and more black bell-topped hats—napless and dinged it may be—are to be seen in a morning's walk through this part of Malacca than would be met with during a whole year in any other part of India. A black alpaca jacket, perhaps a shirt, but as often none, and a pair of cotton pants, the legs reaching a little below the knee and the bodies braced up close under the arm-pits, complete their attire. Nor do the minds of these people show any indication of their superior descent; they are not clever or industrious, and not ambitious. It seems that as soon as they accumulate a little money, either by accident or labour, they cease working and either live in indolence until it is spent, or as is more frequently the case—for they are given to good-fellowship among themselves—they have one grand "blow out." They are great musicians, and are prolific to a degree; and at the close of day the married men sit out in the verandahs of their houses fronting the street, discoursing, generally on the violin, some melan-

choly dirge for the amusement of their wives and families who are gathered around them. Another remarkable feature connected with these people is, that notwithstanding the fact of Malacca having passed over two hundred years ago into the occupation of the Dutch, and having again been transferred to the English in the early part of this century, and the fact of their intermarriage and close contact with the native races, they have yet managed to preserve their original tongue, and continue to speak a sort of broken Portuguese.

It is not easy to discover to what pursuits these people chiefly devote themselves; for though there are no European houses of business in Malacca and the trade of the place passes through native hands, yet there is, I believe, no Malacca-Portuguese merchants in Malacca itself, nor in either of the neighbouring settlements. In Singapore and Penang, to which large numbers of these Portuguese have flocked, they fill the positions of copying-clerks in mercantile houses, head servants in hotels, and generally constitute the entire strength of the different printing-offices there; but these men are or become more intelligent than the friends they leave behind in Malacca. In Malacca however there are no hotels and no printing-offices, so that the Portuguese have not there any of these vents for their labour. They are fishermen, but not tillers of the soil to a greater extent than the cultivation of the small patches of ground attached to their houses; it is probable that a good many of them inherit means enough to live upon, and that others eke out an existence upon the profits of occasional

small ventures to or from Singapore; while some few hold subordinate clerkships in the Government offices. Still there remains a large section whose means of livelihood I have been unable to discover.

But the Portuguese though the most interesting inhabitants of Malacca are not the most numerous. Chinese, Malays, Klings and other natives of India (many of these time-expired convicts,) each equal if not outnumber them; and in the country, few but Chinese and Malays are to be met with. Here, as in the other Settlements of the Straits, the Chinese are the most industrious. The Malays are not particularly active; they fish, and grow and sell fruit, but seldom trade. The Klings are chiefly boatmen and road labourers, the better circumstanced being money-lenders and money-changers. The convicts form a strange medley, having a decidedly mixed nationality; many return to their own country when they have served the term of their transportation, but others remain, and betake themselves to whatever turns up. A very singular and remarkable man of this class, but in whose case the majesty of the law, according to his account, had dealt somewhat harshly, is known by the name Tickery Bandah, who has by sheer strength of character made himself a notability of the place. He is a shopkeeper, a scribe, gives legal advice, and is a most useful man to all strangers in the search either of comfort or information. He is a native of Ceylon, and was sent a convict to Malacca for seven years, but as to the cause of his expatriation he is not very clear; he is now a free man, his sentence having expired early this

year. He is fond of displaying his law library to all strangers, and shows autograph letters from the King of Siam, with whom he corresponds regularly, and whose royal liberality he has more than once experienced. His acquaintance with the King of Siam is owing to his having when in Ceylon performed a great service for a holy mission which had been despatched there by the King. The story, as Tickery tells it, is not uninteresting :—

When the English took possession of Ceylon, Tickery Bandah and two or three brothers—children of the first minister of the King of the Kandians—were taken and educated in English by the Governor. Tickery afterwards became manager of coffee plantations, and was so on the arrival of the Siamese mission of priests in 1845 in search of Buddha's tooth. It seems he met the mission returning disconsolate, having spent some 5,000*l.* in presents and bribes in a vain endeavour to obtain a sight of the relic. Tickery learned their story, and at once ordered them to unload their carts and wait for three days longer, and in due time he promised to obtain for them the desired view of the holy tooth. He had a cheque on the bank for 200*l.* in his hands at the time, and this he offered to leave with the priests as a guarantee that he would fulfil his promise ; he does not say whether the cheque was his own or his master's, or whether it was handed over or not. Perhaps it was the cheque for the misappropriation of which he found his way to the convict lines of Malacca. The Siamese priests accepted his undertaking and unloaded their baggage, agreeing to

wait for the three days. Tickery immediately placed himself in communication with the then Governor, and represented, as he says, forcibly, the impositions that must have been practised upon the King of Siam's holy mission, when they had expended all their gifts and not yet obtained the desired view of the tooth.

The Governor, who Tickery says was a great friend of his, appreciated the hardship of the priests, and agreed that the relic should be shown to them with as little delay as possible. It happened, however, that the keys of the mosque where the relic was preserved were in the keeping of the then Resident Councillor, who was away some eight miles elephant-shooting. But this difficulty was not long allowed to remain in the way. Tickery immediately suggested that it was very improbable the Councillor would have included these keys in his hunting furniture, and insisted that they must be in the Councillor's house. He therefore asked the Governor's leave to call upon Mrs. ——, the Resident Councillor's wife, and presenting the Governor's compliments to request a search to be made for the keys. Tickery was deputed accordingly, and by dint of his characteristic tact and force of language, carried the keys triumphantly to the Governor.

The Kandy priests were immediately notified that their presence was desired, as it was intended to exhibit the great relic, and their guardian offices would be necessary. Accordingly, on the third day, the mosque or temple was opened; and in the building were assembled the Siamese priests and worshippers with

Tickery on the one side, and the Kandy or guardian priests on the other, the Recorder and the Governor in the centre.

After making all due offering to the tooth of the great deity, the Siamese head priest, who had brought a golden jar filled with otto of roses, desired to have a small piece of cotton with some of the otto rubbed on the tooth and then passed into the jar, thereby to consecrate the whole of the contents. To this process the Kandy priests objected, as being a liberty too great to be extended to any foreigners. The Siamese, however, persevered in their request, and the Governor and Recorder not knowing the cause of altercation inquired of Tickery. Tickery, who had fairly espoused the cause of the Siamese, though knowing that in their last request they exceeded all precedent, resolved quietly to gratify their wish; so in answer to the Governor's interrogatory, took from the hands of the Siamese priest a small piece of cotton and the golden jar of oil. "This is what they want, your honour, they want to take this small piece of cotton—so; and having dipped it in this oil—so; they wish to rub it on this here sacred tooth—so; and having done this to return it to the jar of oil—so; thereby, your honour, to consecrate the whole contents." All the words of Tickery were accompanied by the corresponding action, and of course the desired ceremony had been performed in affording the explanation. The whole thing was the work of a moment. The Governor and Recorder did not know how to interfere in time, though they knew such a proceeding to be against all precedent;

the Kandy priests were taken aback, and the Siamese priests, having obtained the desired object, took from Tickery's hands the now consecrated jar with every demonstration of fervent gratitude. The Kandy priests were loud in their indignation; but the Governor, patting Tickery on the back, said, "Tickery, my boy, you have settled the question for us,—a pity it is you were not born in the precincts of St. James's, for you would have made a splendid political agent."

Tickery received next morning a douceur of 1,000 rupees from the priests, and ever since has been held in the highest esteem and respect by the King of Siam, also by the Buddhist priests, by whom he is considered a holy man. From the King he periodically receives honorary and substantial tokens of royal favour. He has a *carte blanche* to draw on the King for any amount; but he says he has, as yet, contented himself with a moderate draft of 700 dollars.

The territory of Malacca is now extensive, having been nearly doubled since it came into our hands from the Dutch by the war with Nanning in 1833; and it is to the development of the resources of the inlying lands that we must look for any increase in the prosperity of this settlement. These resources are two in number—agriculture and mining—and though they have occupied undivided attention since Malacca ceased to be resorted to as an emporium, it does not seem that they have attained that progress which latterly, at all events, might have been expected of them. With regard to agriculture, the unsatisfactory nature of the land grants alluded to in a previous

chapter, was long thought to be the chief cause of the inactivity that prevailed. But now that the soil is ready to be granted away in fee-simple, reserving only a royalty upon metals, very little improvement is perceptible. The indolent character of the Portuguese population, and its contagious effect upon the other races, added to the aversion entertained by European capitalists to begin extensive cultivation in a new field, have doubtless been, and still are, the chief causes why Malacca has not attained that agricultural development for which its soil and climate are so singularly suited.

The exports of produce are, with the exception of tapioca and sago, confined entirely to what might be termed garden products—chiefly fruits. These are for the most part grown in the gardens of the houses in town, and embrace almost every variety of intertropical growth, besides some that may be considered peculiar to the peninsula. Along many of the streets, drooping over the garden walls of the houses that line them, may be seen rich clusters of mangoes and jambu fruit, and mangoosteen, custard apple, durian, and rambutan trees actually loaded with fruit. Further out of town the fruit gardens though fewer are larger, and stocked with greater variety. Beyond these fruit gardens, however, the products of the soil of Malacca must be viewed at some distance from town, as also must the entire mining wealth of the station.

The road to the tin mines of Kassang serves two purposes very well; ultimately leading to the chief mines now working about eighteen miles inland, it

affords along its length a tolerably perfect insight to the character of the country and the extent of cultivation. As soon as the straggling houses of the town and the many mosques and temples that abound on its outskirts are passed, long prairie-like plains of waving paddy stretch away from either side of the road, till they are broken by a belt of jungle or a range of hills. The fields which compose these plains are seldom more than an acre or two in extent, and are marked off by little mud-dikes a foot or two in height, which, though sufficiently marking the boundaries of each plot, do not interrupt the prairie-like appearance of the whole. Dotted here and there over these yellow fields, are little dark green clumps of cocoa-nut trees shading the homesteads of the husbandmen, chiefly Malays. The paddy or rice plant very much resembles corn in its growth and appearance when ripe, but by the Malays, at all events, it is both planted and gathered in a peculiar manner. When completely ripe, the women of the homesteads proceed to the fields with a kind of scissors, and commence to gather it by clipping off the tops or ears of each stalk, the stubble being left standing some eighteen inches high. As soon as the reaper has a handful of these ears, she ties them firmly together and places the bundle down with a heap of others, to be carried to the homestead when the day's work is over. It is singular how exactly similar in weight these little bundles are made by practised reapers; and in disposing of the paddy for husking, it is never weighed out, but sold at so much the

hundred bundles. The husking is a very primitive operation in the Straits; the grains are stripped off these bundles into a bowl-like cavity dug in a large log of solid wood, and pounded by a long heavy stick till the husk is gradually loosened, when it is taken out and winnowed, and again pounded till perfectly clean. After reaping, when the rains come, the fields are dammed up and the water allowed to collect. When a foot or so of the water lies over the surface, bullocks and other cattle are turned in to tread down the stubble, which soon rots under water, and forms a valuable manure for next year's crop. When the rains dry up and the ground is ready for planting, small holes are made about a foot apart, and into each of these a few paddy stalks or seedlings, about forty days old, which have been reared from the seed in a separate part of the field, are planted at the depth of four inches. Though undoubtedly a more laborious method this than sowing, it is more economical and more efficacious.

For about four miles inland from the town these paddy-fields stretch uninterruptedly along. At this distance belts of jungle and half-cleared land appear, beyond which very little paddy is grown. Here, however, commence the tapioca tracts; they scarcely deserve to be called plantations. There can be no more slovenly cultivation, I think, than that of tapioca in the Straits. A piece of jungle is cut down and fired, and as soon as the brushwood is burned away the planting commences, amid all the confusion of fallen, half-charred logs and stumps. The plant is

a bush of eight or nine feet high, and grows in great abundance in any kind of soil. It has a root very much like the sweet potato, and it is from this root that the tapioca is made. The roots of the young plants only are used, as the older ones are much too fibrous; the stalk of the plant is very brittle, and it is planted by breaking up a stalk into a number of short pieces and sticking them in the ground; a man can therefore stock a plantation in a day. It is said that the stalk must be put in the ground, lower part downward, and that if this order is reversed the root becomes poisonous; but this is believed by natives only.

When the roots are gathered they are peeled or pared, and then placed in a sort of mill, where they are squeezed, crushed, and ground to a flowery pulp. This pulp is then taken and placed on a sieve of calico, and bucketfuls of water are poured upon it while a man works it backwards and forwards, allowing the water to carry all the substance through the calico into a tub beneath; the rubbing is continued until the fibre only is left on the calico, and this is then laid aside and afterwards used for pig's meat. The water with the substance of the root passes from the tub through a long series of vats, depositing the particles of substance, which, from their specific gravity, seek the bottom, and allow the water in the end to pass off pure. The tapioca first taken from the vats looks exactly like pipe-clay, and until it has undergone several washings, is discoloured; ultimately however it becomes beautifully white, and is

then allowed to dry, when it is taken out in a sort of cakey state, but being heavy crumbles into flour on the touch. I do not know how it receives the sort of lumpy form in which it is ordinarily sold; for at the manufactory I examined it was made up into small globules or pearls like sago. The process of thus making it up is exceedingly simple. A sort of hammock of white cloth is hung up with a stick across the centre to distend it; into this hammock the flour or cakey matter is cast while still a little damp, and the hammock is then rocked backwards and forwards; from an adhesive property in the flour, the motion makes it take the form of the small globules, which the longer it is rocked become the larger, something on the principle of snowballs. These small pearls are reduced to a uniform size by being riddled through sieves. The pearl, however, has as yet no solidity, and is reduced to powder on the slightest pressure, and all those that are too large or too small are at once reduced to powder and returned again to the hammock. The pearls of the proper size are rolled about as much as possible and allowed to dry, when, from a sort of affinity in their material, they gradually become hard, and enabled to stand the final process of rubbing with the hand on smooth boards, which gives them a perfect consistency. Sago is made nearly in the same way.

About ten miles from town these tapioca tracts cease, and the road runs then through jungle for some five miles to the hot springs, or *Ayer Panas*, at which stands a small native hamlet, and a Government

bungalow. Up to this point the road is identical with that which existed two or perhaps three hundred years ago, and had been constructed by the Dutch or Portuguese. Very little traffic goes over it now, for, with the exception of visitors to the springs and the mines, it is only used by pedestrians; but it must have been a more busy road in olden times, for it has been substantially made. The sides are now for the most part overgrown with tangled brushwood and ferns, and a foot track only laid bare; but at some points where this brushwood is cleared away, can still be seen the hard well-cemented brick coping on the edges of the drains, a precaution to keep the road from being washed away with the heavy rains, which, though it must undoubtedly have been an expensive one, has singularly well served its purpose, for at those points where these copings still remain the road is found indeed almost concrete and beautifully level.

The Government bungalow at Ayer Panas is some 300 yards distant from the hot springs, which lie down in a hollow, and have a shed built over them. There are three separate springs, and they have been cleared out and walled round in a square form, each well being about three feet by three feet, by six feet deep. The hot water comes up to the top of the brick enclosures, and flows over by a small drain. The hottest spring is about 130° and is quite unbearable, scalding the hand or foot if immersed. The other two are cooler, but too hot to bathe in. From the bottom of each of the wells large bubbles of phosphorated hydrogen gas are sent up at intermittent periods, and

the water itself is so strongly impregnated with this gas as to be highly disagreeable to the smell. Close to the shed enclosing the wells there runs a rapid stream of cold water which is used for the irrigation of the rice-fields. At the level mark of the hot water in each well is a deposit of green crystals. A bath is effected either by taking a bucket of cold water to the springs and bringing it to the desired heat, or having the hot water carried up to a large and convenient bath at the bungalow, and there cooled down to a proper temperature.

The road from the bungalow to the mining village of Kassang leads irregularly through the forest for almost five miles. The inhabitants there are almost entirely Chinese, numbering several thousands, and their attap houses are built close together in the centre of their workings. The mines reminded me a good deal of some of the abandoned diggings in Australia, with a difference in the colour of the soil, which is white and greyish, instead of yellow and brown as in the gold-fields. A great deal of ground seems to have been opened up and worked, but the present sinkings are very few and far between. The ground is entirely open cast; no attempt that I saw having been made to get at the washing stuff by the more economical plan of shaft working; probably the sandy nature of the soil would render this last plan impracticable. The wash dirt of those workings that I saw was about twenty or twenty-five feet from the surface, and I was informed averages about four feet in thickness. The miners do not wash out the tin

as they collect the dirt, but wait until they have gathered together a good pile and then "wash out" by means of sluices: the latter operation I did not see. The ore is smelted on the ground in a very primitive but quite effective manner. In the shed I saw, there were two furnaces made of mud, bound together by saplings. At the bottom of each furnace there were two small holes of two inches in diameter for the molten metal to run out, and the draft to be carried up. One furnace was working while I was there, the ore was mixed up with charcoal and a light applied, no artificial draft was created. The metal drops through the small holes as it melts into a cavity scooped in the earth, and from this it is ladled up and poured into the moulds, then sent to town, and there generally remelted by the exporting merchant.

A very interesting feature in the neighbourhood of Malacca is the Roman Catholic mission to the Jacoons, a tribe of the aborigines of the peninsula. The station is about eight miles out of town; the road to it for some distance skirts the western sea beach, and is shaded by a stately double row of augsana trees, which were planted fifty years ago, and are now in magnificent foliage having a height of seventy and eighty feet and a diameter of even more than that. At two miles from town the road strikes away from the beach straight inland, and passes through country similar to that first noticed on the way to Kassang; a long plain of paddy-fields stretching away to right and to left, till at almost five miles from the shore cultivation ceases and the confines of the jungle are reached. Here

too the road becomes choked up with underwood and tiger grass and difficult of passage to a conveyance. The jungle on either side, however, is not dense; many of the larger trees have been cut down, as if an attempt at clearance had at one period been made and abandoned.

About a mile within this jungle where the trees begin to get closer and the undergrowth denser, is the palisade of the priest's homestead. About five acres of ground have been cleared and laid out with fruit-trees. The buildings of the mission comprise a chapel, a school-house, and the padre's dwelling, which are all constructed of wood with attap or leaf roofs, but of neat design. On the borders of the clearing are a number of the huts of the natives, as many as generally constitute a Malay hamlet in the interior. Everything has an aspect of cleanliness and order which at once impresses the visitor favourably.

It was on a Sabbath morning when as one of a party of four, I visited this mission about a year ago. We had chosen that day because the Jacoons, who were for the most part away hunting and fishing in the forests during the week, would then be gathered together in the chapel to offer up their prayers and have their sermon preached to them. The service had just commenced when we reached the chapel, but the priest, Father Borie, suspended it for a moment to come out and welcome us, and procure us seats. The service lasted for about half an hour, and the sermon for probably half that time; in the former there was not much to remark or admire; but the sermon was

a good honest simple one delivered in Malay; and I am sure was suited even to the very limited capacities of his hearers. There were probably one hundred and twenty natives, men, women, and children, present in the church, of whom probably two-thirds were Jacoons, and the rest Malays. Great must have been the labour of this lonely missionary before he assembled this crowd of worshippers, for to the Jacoons he must first have had to teach Malay before he could teach them the Gospel; and he must have taught all his lessons in a spirit of love and forbearance, for so timorous and gentle are these people that the slightest exhibition of harshness or unkindliness would have frightened them all away from him.

After the service had closed Father Borie led us to his house close by, a neat little bungalow, where he opened his little stores and freely invited us to partake of his hospitality. He had been eighteen years in the Malay peninsula labouring to convert to Christianity the strange tribe that were now gathered around him. He had met many vicissitudes and many adventures, but had little to complain of the treatment he had received from the aboriginal tribes. His flock now numbered 450 Jacoons, and they were attached to the mission by the strongest tie by which it was possible to attach their simple natures—that of affection. I have heard missionaries of the Protestant church in some parts of the East, when alluding to the spread of the Romish faith among the natives, attribute it to the showiness of the Catholic service as compared with that of our own church. No doubt a service which

appeals so much to the senses has its advantages in point of attraction to the simple mind of the native; but I think that this is but a small cause of the success of the Catholic missions in comparison with the laborious devotion of the Catholic missionaries. Here was Father Borie, a man of good parts and education, who had for nearly twenty years withdrawn himself from the world, built his home in the midst of these people, and set himself about their education and conversion to the exclusion of all other ambition; and this on the fat living of some 50*l.* a year, which was itself all shared with his flock. Dried fish and rice, enriched at times by the birds or venison of the jungle brought to him by his flock, was his food, and water with now and then a flask of old French wine was his drink. And there was no rushing back for relief from this seclusion into the presence and excitement of civilization, as we have witnessed with our own missionaries. Malacca was barely eight miles distant from Father Borie's mission, and yet a visit in six months was the most he made to it.

Father Borie gave us many interesting particulars of the Jacoons, of their habits, and of their character and superstitions. As for their appearance we could judge of that ourselves, for about fifty or sixty of them were squatted in a semicircle round the front of the padre's house where we were sitting. They were mostly of very diminutive stature with woolly hair, but wearing an amiable expression on their features. Their wives and children were with them, and I noticed that the little boys came fearlessly up to the

padre, and while staring rather timorously at us kept firm hold of his gown. These he took in turn upon his knee, patted and patted them and apparently reconciled them to our presence, when they grew braver and came up to us. We saw an old couple of the Jacoons who could give no idea of their age, but could point to their married grandchildren. They were very small, and old age while it had silvered their woolly locks and shrivelled them up, appeared to have robbed them of little of their activity or liveliness.

The neighbourhood of the mission was more or less frequented by tigers, and the padre told us an adventure he had with one. He had been out in the forests looking for game, and was returning home, having been unsuccessful, with one barrel of his fowling-piece still loaded with small shot. When within a few hundred yards of his clearing he turned round to light his pipe, laying his gun on the ground, and taking his hat to protect the match from the breeze, commenced to strike the steel against the flint. At this moment he was surprised to hear his two dogs each give utterance to a short whining cry, and he noticed that they crept close to him, their hair bristling with terror. Alarmed at these symptoms he removed his hat from in front of him, and standing right in face of him, not more than ten yards distant, was a huge powerful tiger, his tail erect, uneasily pawing the ground, and uttering a sort of low hissing growl. In a moment—as the padre admitted—of great terror, and in obedience rather to instinct than reason, he snatched his musket from the ground and

scarcely waiting to take aim he fired off the contents of the loaded barrel in the direction of the tiger. Not waiting to see the result of the shot, but conscious that he had exhausted his entire means of defence, the priest turned and fled, followed by his dogs, in the direction of the mission. Fear lent him strength and speed, and he reached his clearing in safety, but in an almost fainting condition. A well-armed party was formed and went to the spot where the tiger had been seen, but no sign of him could be obtained. That night one of the dogs which had been with the padre in the morning, after a succession of convulsions, died, as far as could be judged, from the effects of terror only, and the other one only lingered a few days longer. About a week afterwards, as the priest was passing the spot where he had fired at the tiger, he felt a strong smell of animal decay; and gathering a party of the natives together a search was made, and in about half an hour the dead body of the tiger was discovered. The small shot from the musket had lodged in the animal's face, and though barely piercing into the flesh, the pain and irritation had so annoyed him that he had literally torn himself to death with his claws, his head and neck being all in strips.

Father Borie told me that the Jacoons have a fixed and singular superstition concerning tigers, ninety-nine men out of every hundred believing it, even in face of their Christian teaching. They believe that a tiger in their path is invariably a human enemy, who, having sold himself to the evil spirit, assumes by sorcery the shape of the beast to execute his vengeance or malignity.

They assert that invariably before a tiger is met, a man has been or might have been seen to disappear in the direction from which the animal springs. In many cases the metamorphosis, they assert, has been plainly seen to take place.

We left the good priest's homestead deeply impressed with the remarkable devotion to the cause of an imperfect religion, which had led a gentleman and scholar of no mean pretensions thus to seclude himself for life in the jungle borders of Malacca. On our way back, we visited a half-forsaken nutmeg plantation, famous for the extraordinary size of the nuts borne by the trees. Some of those which we gathered were fully nine inches in circumference of the fruit or husk, or more than twice the ordinary size. Over the chief entrance of the bungalow which had been erected on this plantation was a large black board with the first lines of the sixth canto of Sir Walter Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel.* What sudden access of enthusiasm had caused the proprietor to break out in such rhapsody it is difficult to understand; it had possibly been induced by the exceedingly fine prospects of the nutmeg crop; at all events, the patriotic sentiment now reads drearily enough in sight of the whitened branches of the blighted trees which are fast being choked up by tiger-grass and jungle.

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX I.

LIST OF THE FRUITS TO BE FOUND IN THE BAZAARS OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.*

(Buah, the Malay term for fruit in general, is always prefixed to the specific name.)

Malayan Names.	Linnean, &c. Names.	Remarks.
Angoor	Vitis vinifera	Grapes. Cultivated occasionally successfully, but not abundant.
Assam gloogoor..	Tamarindus indica	Principally used in the composition of curries, for which the Malays are famed. The fruit is also used with water as a cooling laxative drink in fevers.
Assam kambing eejoo.		
Assam kundisun.		
Babesaram	Morus indica	The mulberry. Used by the natives as a mild emollient.
Bachang	Mangifera fœtida	The horse-mango. A very coarse fruit, of unpleasant odour; much eaten by the lower classes, and producing cholera, diarrhœa, and dysentery.
Bangkudu	Morinda citrifolia	The leaves of this plant are used by the Javanese in various diseases as astringents. "Bontius mentions their use in diarrhœa and cholera. Internally they act as a mild emollient diuretic." — Horsfield in *Trans. Batt. Soc.*, vol. viii., p. 25.
Batee	Papaya	
Beenjai	Mangifera cæsia of Dr. Jack.	A very large, oblong, brown-coloured, rather agreeably tasted fruit, like the common mango.
Bidara	Rhamnus jujuba	A subacid fruit of a bright yellow colour, about the size of a cherry, the pulp enclosing an elliptical-shaped seed. "The bark of this tree is possessed of mild tonic virtues; it is recommended in weakness of the stomach, and in diseases of the intestines." — Horsfield loc. cit., p. 23.

* Compiled by Dr. Ward.

Malayan Names.	Linnean, &c. Names.	Remarks.
Bilimbing bisee..	Averrhoa carambola	Two well-known, pleasant tart fruits, resembling, strongly, unripe gooseberries.
Bilimbing bulu.	Averrhoa bilimbi.	
Brambang.....	(Not ascertained)	A sour fruit, used for making chatnies and curry.
Brangun	Fagi species	In appearance and taste strongly resembling the European chestnut.
Champadoo	Arctocarpus integrifolia	The jack. Farinaceous, mucilaginous, and nutritive.
Chirimi	Averrhoa acida, or Cicca disticha	A pleasant tart fruit. "The root of the Cicca disticha is said to be emetic, and great activity is ascribed to it."—Horsfield, loc. cit., p. 33.
Dalima	Punica granatum	Pomegranate. The rind is used as an astringent, and the bark of the root as an anthelmintic by the natives.
Dookoo	Lansium domesticum, Blume. "Bijdragen tot de Flora van Nederlandshe Indie," 4 de stuk., p. 175.	This delightful fruit is the produce of a large tree. It grows in clusters: each is about the size of a cricket-ball. The brownish thin skin being broken, displays the pulp in six cloves, of a pleasantly acid taste, enclosing a greenish kidney-shaped seed. It is by many reckoned the finest fruit in the peninsula. The month of July is the season at Malacca, in which it is had in greatest perfection.
Doorian.....	Durio zibethinus	This fruit is well known from the descriptions of travellers. Those who have overcome the prejudice excited by the disagreeable fœtid odour of the external shell, reckon it delicious. From experience, I can pronounce it the most luscious and the most fascinating fruit in the universe. The pulp covering the seeds, the only part eaten, excels the finest custards which could be prepared either by Ude or Kitchener. Bontius says it proves laxative, diuretic, and carminative; but when eaten in too great quantities, that it predisposes to inflammatory complaints. The natives consider it to possess aphrodisiac qualities. It is certainly in some measure exciting.
Gajook	(Not ascertained)	
Gayer	Ditto	The seeds used by the Indian boys as marbles.
Jambao merah	Eugenia Malaccensis	Some of these, when in perfection, have a fine flavour, but in general they are insipid, being in taste something between a good turnip and a bad apple. The first species is commonly called Jamboo Malacca, and is certainly the finest. The fourth goes under the name of *rose-apple*.
Jambao ayer	Eugenia aquea	
Jambao bulu	Eugenia jambos	
Jambao ayer mawar	Eugenia rosea	
Jambao cheelee..	Eugenia rosea var	
Jambao kling.....	Myrtus cumini	

Malayan Names.	Linnean, &c. Names.	Remarks.
Jambao irong	Anacardium occidentale	Cashew-nut. Fruit coarse, not much eaten. Nut astringent.
Jambao bijee or portgl.	Psidium pyriferum.....	Common guava.
Jintue Jintue	(Not ascertained)	A handsome-looking jungle fruit; an orange pulp surrounds a small seed about the size of a pea, and the whole is enclosed in a trilocular capsule of a deep orange colour, hanging in clusters from the branches. Taste sour.
Kadondong	Phyllanthus Chrysobolanum of Marsden Spondias — Horsfield	The bark of this is used by the natives as an astringent.
Kalapa	Cocos nucifera	Cocoa-nut. Of this Rumphius enumerates thirteen varieties.
Kamang	(Not ascertained)	A fruit of the appearance of a mango; sour, used principally in curries.
Kapas	Bombax pentandrum	The fruit of the cotton tree, taste sweetish, much eaten. Seeds occasionally eaten. The gum of the tree is astringent, and sometimes given in bowel complaints.
Karkara.....	(Not ascertained)	
Kamoonting	Myrtus tomentoso.....	A very common and rather handsome plant, bearing a dark purple-coloured fruit, about the size of a hip, pleasant in tarts or preserved.
Karta-tanga	(Not ascertained)	A very hard brownish black fruit, about the size of an egg, containing a farinaceous substance, boiled and eaten like yam.
Katapang	Terminalia catappa..	A large tree: the fruit and kernel being very like those of the common almond.
Kayoo kolit	(Not ascertained)	A small brown coloured fruit, of sweet taste, common in the jungles.
Khoorma	Phœnix dactilifera.....	Dates; mostly imported from Arabia.
Kichanee	(Not ascertained)	Resembling the soontool in appearance; pulp sweet, tough.
Kiloor	Guillandinia moringa	Ben-nuts of old authors. The whole tree is esculent; the seeds and leaves are aromatic, and used in curries; the root is an excellent substitute for horse-radish. It is a valuable external stimulant. Rumphius says, in large doses it produces strangury and abortion. "The leaves are recommended in gonorrhœa as a mild diuretic."—Horsfield, loc. cit., p. 20.
Kitapang	Callicarpa japonica..	An acid fruit, resembling a machang in shape.
Kledang	(Not ascertained)	A small and very handsome fruit, consisting of an outer shell strongly resembling that of the Rambootan, of a bright red colour, within which is the seed, surrounded by a whitish pulp—the part eaten.

Malayan Names.	Linnean, &c. Names.	Remarks.
Kolit lawang	Laurus kulit lawan	Small sweet jungle fruits, eaten by the children, as hips and haws are in England.
Kolit layoo	(Not ascertained)	
Kooeence	Ditto	A small subacid fruit, of the appearance of a mango, with the same flavour and a very fine scent.
Korinche	Ditto	A small very dark brown fruit, consisting of a hard outer shell, containing a flesh-coloured pulp, hanging in bunches. Sourish taste.
Kras	Camarium cordifolium. The Juglans camirium of Loureiro	A fruit of the size and appearance of the winter apple, resembling, in all its qualities, the walnut of Europe.
Kumbut	(Not ascertained)	The seeds of a large capitate flower, used in curries.
Langoonee	Vitex trifolia	A small greenish subacid fruit, growing in numerous clusters, excellent in tarts. "The root and a bath or cataplasm of the leaves is applied (by the Javanese) externally in rheumatism and local pains in various parts."—Horsfield, loc. cit., p. 16. The leaves are said to cure intermittent fever, to promote urine, and relieve the pain of the colic.—Id.: They are stimulant and aromatic.
Lampanee	(Not ascertained)	Small jungle fruit, eaten by the Malays. Used by infusion by lying-in women.
Langsat	Langsii domestici var.	A very pleasant, subacid, and favourite fruit of the Malays and others. In appearance it is like the dookoo already described. The seeds of it are said to possess anthelmintic properties.
Lanjoot	Mangiferæ species	The oblong, large, coarse-looking, green-coloured fruit of a variety of mango—rather prized by the natives.
Leemoo gadang	Citrus decumana	Pumpelmoose or shaddock; rind, a very agreeable bitter.
Leemoo manis	Citrus aurantium	Several varieties of orange, both indigenous and imported, are to be met with.
Leemoo kustooree Leemoo jamboa Leemoo japoon Leemoo neepis Leemoo soosoo	Citri variæ species	Different varieties of limes and oranges, the list of which might be greatly increased. Some of them are made into excellent preserves.
Lontar	Borassus flabelliformis	The seeds of the Palmyra tree form very good preserves, and are only used for that purpose.
Malaka	Phyllanthus emblica	A handsome tree and fruit. From its abundance round the site of the town at the first arrival of the Malays, Malacca is supposed to have derived its name. The fruit has astringent properties. The fruit is made into a cataplasm, and applied to the head in cases of giddiness.

Malayan Names.	Linnean, &c. Names.	Remarks.
Mangis or Mangistan	Garcina mangostena	The far-famed mangoosteen. The fruit has been justly praised by all who have ever written upon it. It is too well known to require description. The habitat of it is extremely limited. We believe that it does not extend further to the northward than the old fort of Tennasserim in lat. 11° 40′, and all attempts to cultivate it on the continent of India have failed. The shell of the fruit is strongly astringent, and decoctions of it are used by the natives in bowel complaints.
Mangistan ootan.	Embryopteris glutinifer	Wild mangoosteen.
Manga dodol ..	Mangifera indica	Two varieties of mango, the first of which is very excellent, but much inferior to the graft-mangoes at Madras. The common coarse mango is very abundant and much used.
Manga pao	Mangifera amboinensis	
Mata kuching	(Not ascertained) ..	A small fruit growing in thick bunches, consisting of a rough brownish-coloured round shell, containing a deep purple-coloured seed, surrounded with a whitish, opalescent looking pulp like a cat's eye, hence its Malay name; much prized.
Mata plandoq	Ditto	A small sweetish-tasted jungle fruit.
Nam-nam	Cynometra cauliflora	A fruit of the size and shape of a kidney, of a brownish green colour, growing on the stem of the tree; the outer shell is the part eaten, and when good has some resemblance to an apple.
Nanas ..	Bromelia ananas	Pineapple; very abundant and very cheap. "The unripe fruits are diuretic, and employed as a remedy in gonorrhœa." —Horsfield, loc. cit., p. 27.
Nanka	Arctocarpus integrifolia	A variety of jack fruit—well known.
Nasee nasee	Phyllanthes alba	A small white sweetish fruit in clusters not much prized.
Neebong	Caryota urens	The small flat pulpy fruit of this palm is made into a good preserve for the table.
Nona	Annona reticulata ...	The bullock's heart—a much prized fruit.
Pala	Myristica moschata..	Nutmeg. Made into preserve, when in a half-ripe state.
Papaya	Carica papaya	A pleasant, well-known fruit. The seeds are employed by the natives as anthelmintics.
Pinang	Areca catechu .	Common betelnut. Sometimes employed in decoction as an astringent in diarrhœa.
Pisang	Musa paradisea . ..	The plantain. Of this about 40 varieties might be enumerated. The best are the Pisang mas, P. raja, P. oodang, and P. medgi. Decoctions of the root are used as emollient applications.

Malayan Names.	Linnean, &c. Names.	Remarks.
Poolasan	Nephelii species	A very delicate and pleasant fruit.
Rambootan	Nephelium lappaceum	Differs from the preceding in size, and in having long bristle-like processes on the outer shell.
Rambai	Lansii species	This pleasantly subacid fruit, about the size of a plum, hangs in graceful clusters from the branches of a large tree. The pulp surrounding the seed is the part eaten.
Rambaya	Metroxylon sagu	From the pith of this tree sago is prepared. The flattish fruit is made into preserves for the table.
Rookam	Carrissa spinarum	A common fruit, of a purplish colour, clustered round the stem, good in tarts or making jellies.
Salak	Calumus zalacca	Fruit used as a preserve.
Sattool	(Not ascertained)	A fruit of a yellow brown colour, about the size of a moderately large apple, consisting of a thick hard rind, containing five or six cloves, resembling the mangoosteen; taste, sourish.
Sappam	Cœsalpina sappan	Little used.
Seri kaya	Annona squamosa	Custard apple. Well known.
Sika duduk	Melastoma	A common wild fruit, rather astringent—little prized.
Sookoon	Arctocarpus incisa	The bread-fruit. Little used.
Soongool ootan..	(Not ascertained)	
Surba rasa	Ditto	A kind of mango, oblong, large; pulp surrounding the seed of a rich sweetness.
Soopoom	Ditto	A sour fruit of the mango kind, used in curries and in making chatnies.
Soorboot	Ditto	A jungle fruit.
Sow or sao	Ditto	A handsome deep red jungle fruit, about the size of a hen's egg, consisting of a sweetish pulp, surrounding three small brown seeds.
Tampang	Ditto	This fruit exactly resembles an overgrown strawberry; externally it is of a greenish colour mixed with red; internally of a fine pink colour. Taste subacid.
Tanjong	Mimusaps elengi	Of little value as a fruit. "The bark is a mild tonic; it has been found useful in fevers, and as a general roborant; used in decoctions."—Horsfield, loc. cit., p. 39.
Tampoo-ee	Lansii species	A small subacid fruit.
Tampoonee	Arctocarpo (affinis?)	A fruit in external appearance like a small jack, and like it also containing rows of seeds, but without kernels. The pulp, of a yellowish colour, is of an agreeably subacid taste, and is highly prized both by natives and Europeans.
Tomi tomi	Flacourtia inermis	A small reddish fruit, used in making tarts and jellies.

APPENDIX II.

LIST OF THE CHIEF FRUIT AND FOREST TREES INDIGENOUS TO THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.*

(The Malay term *Kayoo*, wood, or *Pokok*, tree, should be prefixed to each name.)

Dammer Laut	A very resinous, heavy, and durable wood; does not float in water; very hard; perhaps the most valuable of the woods found here; will remain uninjured for twenty years under ground; beams a foot square, or even much larger, can be had.
Tummoossooh	Is a very resinous wood, and, although durable, is more disposed to warp than Dammer Laut; it is useful for rafters; its colour is light straw; the tree is high; it is most frequently hollow, but beams from six to ten inches square can be had; this wood will remain uninjured 100 years under ground.
Tampenes	Is a very hard and durable wood, excellent for house-building; it is of a light-reddish and yellowish colour.
Pinang Purgam	A white wood, fracture yellowish coloured, used for boat-building.
Moon Tapoos	Is a wood with a loose bark, used for spear shafts, musket stocks, and such purposes; large spars of it may be had; it is chiefly found in Perak and Pulow Trootow or Trotto; it sinks in water.
Fir	It is found on the upper zones of the hills, at an elevation of about 2,200 feet; large spars may be had.
Maranti	Of two sorts, red and white; the red is most used; planks may be had three feet broad; it is chiefly used for planking; grows on plains, and river banks and hills; it floats.
Chingei	A high tree, from 18 to 25 feet in circumference, used for ship and boat building; stands the salt water well; is much used on the Tennasserim coast; the wood itself floats; fracture rather short; it grows in sandy grounds.
Muddang-leber-daun	Fracture fibrous; used for house building; white colour; broad leaf; large spars may be had.
Gillam Tikoos	Middle-sized tree, colour brownish-yellow; fracture strong fibrous; used for house building; its red bark is much used to tan fishing-nets; the wood is not prized.
Doongoon	A large tree which grows on the banks of rivers near the sea shore; colour dark brown; the planks are used for a defence against musketry by Malayan pirates; crooked timber and tough.

* From Colonel Low's Dissertation.

Kayoo Laut	Used for house posts; lasts five or six years if exposed; colour yellowish; the tree grows in brackish water.
Rummiyah	High tree; the wood is a light dirty-brown when young, of a dark brown when old, and sinks in water; cross fracture, splintery; grows on hills; the fruit is eaten; used as posts for houses.
Api Api	A large tree, has a white wood; is excellent firewood.
Bruas	A moderately sized tree, which bears a sour mangoosteen; the wood is used for house building and for making oars; sinks in water.
Killat	Very tough; very fibrous fracture; tree high; timber not durable if exposed to weather; used in house building and for planks; light colour; sinks in water.
Runggas	A lofty tree, the juice of which is deleterious to the human frame, creating swellings over the whole body; the wood is of a reddish-brown colour; it is used for making furniture; the fracture is cross and splintery; it is often prettily enough veined, and takes a good polish; sinks in water.
Niris Battu	A high tree; the wood is of a dark brown colour; it is used for house pillars; it grows in mangrove jungle.
Maralilin	Used for rafters; wood straw-coloured; fracture fibrous; tree not large.
Babi Kooroos	White wood.
Chindrai	Firewood, light and white; the tree is not large; the leaves are used in bowel complaints; lying-in females are kept near a fire of this wood; is very inflammable.
Butabuta	The juice is boiled, and the oil collected, and used in cutaneous disorders externally.
Gading	White wood, white thin bark, used by Malayan women for tambouring frames.
Jimirlang Sittoocl	Cross fracture; used in house and boat building.
Middang Serai	High tree, used in boat-building.
Bongor Ayer	Used for boat oars, floats.
Durian and Durian Burong	High trees, afford valuable *spars, and the latter* masts for vessels; a large mast will cost 120 dollars.
Moratajam	White wood; its root and leaves are mashed, and used as a cooling application in cases of brain-fever; the infusion of this root is drank in cases requiring astringent medicine; it is not a strong wood.
Boonoot	A large tree bearing an acid fruit, edible; the wood is of a dark chocolate colour; it is used as house posts and in boat-building.
Pittaling	A good-sized tree; the wood is close grained, of a light red or brown colour; used in house building.
Toommoos	High tree, grows in mangrove jungles; used for rafters.
Langadei	A tree growing in mangrove jungles; the wood is white, used for firewood.
Bintangor	High tree, few branches; used for masts and spars for vessels; floats, and is tough; it is approved before all others for these purposes—Calophyllum mophyllum, L.
Middang Kunyit	Fibrous fracture; used for planks of boats.
Niris Bunga	A tree growing in mangrove jungle, used for house-building and fencing; colour reddish; its fruit is as large as a cocoa-nut.
Nunka Pipit	Is the lightest, perhaps, of the durable woods; its habitat is on high land; it is difficult to saw; it is the sparrow jack; it is useful for house pillars, as it endures being sunk in the earth; sinks in water.
Baroo	Its bark is used for making twine, caulking, and other purposes.
Bagu	Is another of the same kind.

Krangei Laut	It is used for wheels, bows, and spear shafts.
Ara	Different species of the Ficus indicus, with entire leaves; they are planted near temples.
Prea Laut	Momordia charantia.
Jawi jawi	A species of banian.
Merabau	This is a high tree, affording large planks for making tables, chairs, &c., also for house pillars and boat building; it is durable.
Merabau Etam, or Tundo, M. Darah, M. Rengkong	Are varieties.
Meddang Kamangi	Sassafras apparently; soft and fragrant wood; has a rough bark.
Meddang Sila	
Meddang Soory	Is used for planking and in house building.
Meddang Benar	
Kayoo Koqlim	Very large tree, and very hard wood; makes good planks for boats; sinks in water.
Kayoo Koolit	
Rossach	A high tree, red for about two-thirds of the diameter, 18 ins. diameter, tough, and used for making paddles, oars, &c.
Bedara	Rhammus jujuba.
Kayoo Chicha	Very durable.
Kayoo Penaga	A large tree; yields crooked timber for knees of vessels; an infusion of its leaves and roots is applied to the eyes to allay inflammation; on the Malabar coast this tree is called Alexandrian laurel, and in Bengal, poorlange; it grows only on the sea-shore, in sandy places; its wood is used for ribs of boats.
Kayoo Kamooning	Apparently the Chakas paniculata of Lin.; Astronia of Batavia Transact.; it is an ornamental wood, and the roots, which are large, and flat, and twisting, are formed into kris handles, and take a fine polish; there are several kinds, such as the Kayoo Kamooning amas, K. K. kunyit troos, K. K. tei karbau, K. K. angin, and K. K. battu; the tree prefers rocky places.
Limpong	Is a tall tree; inhabits swamps; it is used for planks.
Giyum	Is a hard and durable wood, much in request by native boat-builders, who are good judges of the best kinds of timber; it sinks in water, and resists the salt water insects a long while.
Sannai	Is another, used for the same purpose; a sacred tree, very scarce here.
Mirapoo	A high tree; grows in marshy places; fawn coloured; sinks in water; does not resist the worm or beetle.
Binnoo	Is a high tree, with a succulent fleshy leaf, and has a poisonous sap; has an edible acid fruit; the branches grow in shape of an umbrella.
Srean	A slim tree, used in house building.
Ro or Arrow	A graceful tree, somewhat tapering, and resembling some species of the fir; it has small cones and fibrous leaves, Casuarina littorea; the wood is hard; not prized.
Bakkau	Is a small tree.
Toomoos	Its bark is used by the Chinese to dye their sails and lines of a brownish red.
Lengadei	For rafters and firewood.
Jaring	A species of mimosa, resembling a chestnut; the fruit is edible, but has a repulsive smell.
Kattong	Large tree, used for boat-building; that growing on high grounds is best for making tables.
Kapuni	Iron-wood.

Brangan	Is a large tree, with a broad leaf; light wood, and not subject to dry rot; has an edible fruit; cultivated.
Kayoo Singam	This tree grows in mangrove tracts; it is approved for boat and house building.
Gharoo	Agila wood.
Tinkaras	From this tree gharoo is also, it is said, obtained.
Krooing	This tree yields a valuable oil called miniak kooing or krooing.
Kalookoob	Thorny tree; has an acidulous edible fruit.
Kammiyan	The tree which yields the benjamin.
Ipel	Is a large tree, having a reddish coloured wood; the natives use it in house-building; very fibrous fracture; planks for boat-building are cut from it; it is reckoned equal to Merabau; sinks in water; the diameter is sometimes two feet.
Matati	Very brittle wood.
Tatati	For house posts.
K. Tampang Bissee	Hard iron wood, used in some places instead of betel-nut along with betel-leaf; used in house-building.
K. Benar	Used in house-building.
K. Boonga	Ditto ditto
Kananga	A large tree.
Babuta	Is a low shrubby tree; its bark contains a very viscous juice; an oil is extracted from this, which is used in cutaneous affections by the Burmans; great care is required in cutting the tree down, for if the sap reaches the face of the wood-cutter, it will be swelled in a hideous manner, and his sight will be endangered.
To Joak	A dark-leaved small tree, to which superstition affixes a sacred character; most old and isolated trees are held to be kramat, and small white flags are stuck up near them, and often propitiatory offerings made to the spirits supposed to reside on the spot.
Sudoo soodoo	The Euphorium; the Malays use it as a drug for cattle.
Kranji	Large tree; does not float; fibrous fracture; it is a valuable wood; the Chinese use it for masts and rudders to the junks; the Malays for house posts; less durable than Tampenes or Tummassoo; the bark is astringent, and is used by Malays instead of betel-nut when the latter is scarce; the fruit is edible; the wood is not very buoyant.
Kayoo arang, or Siam wood	A black wood, which takes a high polish; it may be had, but does not grow here.
Chumpada Ayer	High tree, growing in marshes; the wood floats; it is yellowish; it is used in making boats; its bark is very flexible and strong, and is used in making walls for native houses, granaries, &c.
Nipis Kulit	Is a moderate-sized tree, about 1½ feet diameter; the bark is very thin, and vertically striated; colour fawn; hard, used to make mortar pestles, and as it sinks in water is used to make anchors.
Secat	A tree having a red bark, which is called by the Burmese "Chekha," and is used to eat along with betel-leaf; it is sold at Junkceylon, at 8 drs. the picul; it is a very scarce tree here.
K. Srayan	A hard wood used for house-building.
Nunka or Jack	Is well known; its wood is not much used here.
Bittoot	Grows in mangrove jungle; fawn-coloured; of little use.
Middang Bunga	Fawn-coloured wood; not durable if exposed.
K. Maralilin	
Kranam	A creeper; medicinal.
Tumpang	High tree; grain yellowish; good for house-posts; very durable; next to Tummassoo for this purpose.

Bayor	Used for boat-building; not very much prized.
Tampenes putih	Not so good as the dark Tampenes.
Chirmei Burong	Small tree; its leaves are used in medicine, and given to lying-in women, and externally in certain cutaneous affections; birds are very fond of its seeds.
K. Tamak bukit	For planks, boat-building; good white.
Mengoopoos	Reckoned nearly equal to Tampenes; it is dark-coloured.
Pulei	White wood, for planks only.
Julutong	Very white; these woods are chiefly used by undertakers.
Langadei	For firewood; sinks in water.
K. Kaledang	Large tree, used in boat-building; dark-coloured.
Nibong	Caryota urens; is a species of palm; the wood is valuable for house-posts and rafters, laths, &c.; grows in marshy places; it is very hard and fibrous, as is its fracture.
Tummak	For ships' planks.
Maroonggei	The Guilandina moringa of Lin. and Bengal.
Sajina or Ramoongei.	A tree having a root of a pungent flavour, resembling horse-radish, for which it is substituted; the natives eat both the leaves and pods; the latter form a good table vegetable.
Bayas	Is a tree of the palm tribe, which grows on the hills, and is put to the same purposes as the Nibong, and is reckoned stronger.
Bintaro	*Carbera of Lin.*; yields a deleterious milky juice.
Pangkap	A species of palm; its fibre is used to tie on thatch.
Passat Linga	A tree, the outer coats of wood white, the heart red; is easily worked into planks, and is durable.
Assam Jawa	The tamarind tree; it is scarce, and cultivated for its fruit.
K. Pisang Pisang	High tree; useful for ships' masts; very tough; colour yellow.
Ipoh	Is the long-dreaded poison tree of Java; with the inspissated juice the Samangs, or wild tribes in the interior, poison their arrows; but this juice, which is prepared over a fire, must be used soon after the process, or it loses much of its virulence.
Babuta	A high tree, the juice of which, or even the exhalations from it, cause swelling in the face, eyes, and body of the wood-cutter, who is careful, therefore, to peel the bark before using the axe.
Dammar meniah	Not equal to Dammar laut. Its oil is mixed with Kruing oil for paying prahus.
Dammar etam	Heavy wood.
Ballong Ayam and Sream	Used for house-building.
Tummak	For boat-building.
Meddang kuning	Yellow sassafras.
Tabangow battu	A hill tree.
Tumpayan amas	A fine-grained yellowish wood, used for furniture.
Rotan	The rattan, a generic term; there are many varieties of the Rotan:—
R. Sigga	Knotted; used for chair-bottoms.
R. Tiga sagi	Three-sided.
R. Kawat	Used for rigging.
R. Tawar	It grows on the banks of rivers, and drops in strong tendrils armed with crooked thorns; these will pull a man out of a boat.
R. Mannau	Used for walking-canes.
R. Samamboo	Also for walking-canes, dark-coloured and glossy, with joints far apart; grows to many hundred feet in length.
R. Dhannan	A very long and thick cane, perhaps the largest species; the gatherers of the edible birds'-nest make their ladders for scaling precipices of this species.
R. Sinnee	Long and delicate, colour white; it is used by the Malays for cables and rigging of prahus.

R. Ligor benar..... True rattan.
R. Jonang ..... Produces the "dragon's blood."
R. Salak ..... Produces an edible fruit; the Calumus zallacca.
R. Bumban ..... Grows about seven or eight feet long; is used for tying on thatch; it is a ground rattan, growing straight up.
R. Saboot ..... Is made into cables and rigging for native prahus.
R. Binni or Dinni Its leaves are poisonous.
R. Oodang ..... Red rattan; the cane of which the Samangs and other tribes make their blowpipes for poisoned arrows.

Buluh Bamboos:—

B. Bittang ..... The large bamboo; it is used for house-building and for ladders; a section forms a water-pitcher; fishing weirs, &c. are constructed of it.
B. Trimiang..... Used by the wild tribes to make their blowpipes for poisoned arrows.
B. Bitting..... A large bamboo; its root is pithy; it is used by the wild tribes to make bows.
B. Duri ..... Thorny bamboo, used for high fences; it grows 60 or 70 feet high.
B. Gading ..... Yellow bamboo.
B. Siggei ..... Used for ladders to scale precipices.

THE END.

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